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Young Finnish pupils as readers of English

Reading comprehension, strategy use and reader perceptions

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Lastenkirjallisuuden käyttö englannin kielen opetuksessa on yleistynyt kansainvälisesti viimeisten vuosikymmenten aikana. Autenttisen kirjallisuuden hyödyiksi luetaan mm. kieli- ja kulttuuritietoisuuden kehitys sekä kielitaidon rikastuttaminen. Suomessa lastenkirjallisuutta hyödynnetään hyvin vähän vieraiden kielten opetuksessa.

Tässä tutkielmassa tarkastellaan suomalaisten ala-asteikäisten oppilaiden valmiuksia lukea ja ymmärtää englanninkielistä lastenkirjallisuutta sekä kartoitetaan lastenkirjallisuuden käyttömahdollisuuksia vieraan kielen opetuksessa. Tutkielmassa vertaillaan oppilaiden luetun ymmärtämistä, lukustrategioita ja lukukäyttäytymistä kahden englannin oppikirjatekstin ja kahden kirjallisen tekstin osalta. Lisäksi tutkielmassa kartoitetaan oppilaiden käsityksiä omista lukutaidoistaan sekä englanninkielisestä lukumateriaalista.

Tutkielman keskeiset käsitteet pohjautuvat angloamerikkalaisen lukututkimuksen viitekehykseen. Teoreettinen tausta rakentuu lukututkimuksissa havaittuihin lukutaito, -tapa, ja -strategiaeroihin äidinkielellä ja toisella kielellä luettaessa.

Tutkielman aineisto kerättiin protokolla-analyysillä sekä puolistrukturoiduilla henkilöhaastatteluilla. Luetun ymmärtämistä, lukustrategioita ja -käyttäytymistä kartoitettiin osallistujien lukemisen yhteydessä tuottamalla ääneen ajattelulla. Oppilaiden käsityksiä lukutaidoista ja lukumateriaaleista kartoitettiin henkilöhaastatteluilla. Osallistujina oli neljä suomalaista kuudesluokkalaista yhdeltä pääkaupunkiseudun ala-asteelta.

Tutkimuksen tulokset vahvistavat, että kielitaitotaso määrittelee vahvasti lukukäyttäytymistä ja luetun ymmärtämistä. Vahvan kielitaidon omaavat osallistujat ymmärsivät sekä oppimateriaalitekstit sekä kirjalliset tekstin paremmin. Lukustrategioiden osalta tutkimus viittaa oppikirjatekstin lukukäytäntöjen ohjaavaan vaikutukseen. Kaikki osallistujat keskittyivät päättelyn ja ennakoinnin sijasta sanasta sanaan kääntämiseen ja muihin tekstisidonnaisiin strategioihin. Tutkielmassa väitän tämän viittaavan siihen, että nykyiset lukukäytännöt vieraan kielen opetuksessa tukevat kielitaidon kehitystä, mutta eivät lukutaidon kehitystä. Tutkimuksessa totean, että englanninkielinen lastenkirjallisuus voisi toimia suomalaisessa kieltenopetuksessa tukena laaja-alaisen lukutaidon kehittämisessä.

Avainsanat – Nyckelord – Keywords
Luetun ymmärtäminen, lukustrategia, englanti toisena kielenä, protokolla-analyysi, lukukäyttäytyminen, lukutottumus, englantilainen lastenkirjallisuus opetuksessa

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Nuoret suomalaiset oppilaat englanninkielen lukijoina: luetun ymmärtäminen, lukustrategiat ja lukijan käsitykset

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Abbreviations

CEFR	Common European framework of references
ETR	experience-text-relationship
ERST	explicit reading strategy training
FL	foreign language
FNCC	Finnish national core curriculum
L1	first language (mother tongue)
L2	second language
TOEFL	test of English as a foreign language

1 Introduction

Using literature in language education has grown in popularity worldwide over the past few decades (Alkhaleefah 2017). Proponents stress that literary language enhances language awareness and acquisition by providing 'a wide range of language patterns, vocabulary words, idioms, and metaphors' (Ghosn 2013: 18). In this way readers learn '*how* language means and not only *what* language means' (Carter & McRae 2002: 10 as cited in Ghosn 2013: 18).

However, the international popularity of using literature in the language classroom has not gained tracking in Finland. Traditionally, Finnish foreign language teaching has been heavily textbook oriented and continues to be so today. A large-scale study of mother tongue and foreign language text practices in Finland found that foreign language teachers consider textbooks and exercise books to be the most important learning material with 98% of teachers reporting a frequent use of textbooks and 95% a frequent use of exercise books (Luukka et al. 2008). The subsequently favored learning materials where handouts and slides. The reasons for using ready-made materials have not been widely researched. Presumably the guidelines of the national core curriculum, teachers' time constrains, and the availability of ready-made material all play a part in the decision. Whatever rationales lie behind text practices, the reality is that with regard to English reading materials Finnish learners do not see a lot of variety. Reading material consists primarily and often solely of textbook reading. In addition to scant knowledge of the rationales behind material choices, to the best of my knowledge, there is not a wealth of information about how young Finns read English reading materials or their perceptions of such materials.

The primary aim of this thesis is to examine learners' readiness to read material other than the textbook reading passages. In this study, I compare how learners read textbook reading material and children's literature respectively. This will be done through a comparative analysis of reading comprehension and use of reading strategies when engaging with non-authentic and authentic reading material. The second aim of this study is to establish an understanding of learners' attitudes toward English reading materials. The research questions are formulated as follows:

1. To what extent do young Finnish pupils comprehend textbook reading material and English children's literature?
2. How do pupils' reading behavior and strategy use differ when reading textbook material and English children's literature?
3. What are pupils' perceptions of reading, English reading materials and their own reading skills?

The study is organized into six chapters. In chapter 2, I establish a theoretical basis for the study. Chapter 3 introduces the data and details the data collection methods. In chapter 4, I present and analyze the results of the study which I discuss in further detail in chapter 5. The concluding chapter reviews the main findings of the study and offers insight into the practical implications of the results.

2 Theoretical background

The theory chapter is divided into three sections. The first section describes and explains key concepts: reading ability, the reading comprehension process and reading strategies. The second section outlines the development of L2 reading research and establishes the main differences between L1 and L2 readers. The third section hones in on the specific focus of this study, namely what is known about the differences between reading authentic and non-authentic materials. The third section also provides an overview of the current state of L2 reading in Finnish classrooms.

To begin with, a few words on the distinction between a second language (L2) and a foreign language (FL) are in place. The conventional distinction is that an L2 is also a native language of the country it is learned it. An FL, on the other hand, is a language that is not spoken as a native language in the country where it is learned (Alderson 2015: 71). However, the lines between what constitutes an L2 are often muddied. One will find a large proportion of scholarly works using the abbreviations interchangeably or in a context where it is not quite clear whether the language is, in fact, a second or a foreign language. The majority of studies presented here refer to L2 readers. For the sake of clarity, I refer to the participants of this study as L2 readers, as English is widely used in Finland and generally the first foreign language Finnish pupils learn in school.

2.1 Understanding reading ability

Grabe and Stoller (2002: 9) define reading as "the ability to draw meaning from the printed page and interpret this information appropriately". This simple definition is an adequate place to begin but it does not account for the complexity of reading. Hence, reading research has attempted to conceptualize reading ability and comprehension in various ways. Consequently, the field of reading research is immensely vast (Alderson 2000). There are a few typical ways researchers categorize reading and organize studies. One clear cut distinction is between product and process. Product refers to what is understood and process to how comprehension is reached (Alderson 2015: 72). Studies on reading can also be categorized through a distinction between the reader and the text (Alderson 2000). Reader-oriented studies examine matters such as the effects of the reader's existing knowledge, the

skills and abilities necessary for fluent reading, strategies readers employ, readers' purposes, as well as motivational aspects of reading. Text-oriented research focuses on the aspects of the text that affect reading. Such variables include topic, content, genre, text type, organization and readability, to name a few (ibid.). Yet another approach categorizes reading ability into component skills. Grabe (1991: 379) proposes six component skills:

1. Automatic recognition skills
2. Vocabulary and structural knowledge
3. Formal discourse structure knowledge
4. Content/world background knowledge
5. Synthesis and evaluation skills/strategies
6. Metacognitive knowledge and skills monitoring

These skills illustrate that reading is a complex phenomenon where various types of knowledge are in constant interplay with each other and all affect the degree to which reading is successful. We begin the exploration of this complex system by discussing what happens on a cognitive level when a person reads.

2.1.1 Levels of the comprehension process

Reading comprehension involves the activation of two levels of cognitive processing: lower-level and higher- level processing (Grabe & Stoller 2002: 20). The lower-level processes are lexical access, syntactic parsing, semantic proposition formation, and working memory activation. At the lower-levels of processing the reader decodes sounds and orthographic symbols into meaningful units. With fluent readers, these processes are activated automatically without conscious effort (Adams 1990; Alderson 2015: 75). *Lexical access*, or word recognition, is the primary prerequisite for comprehension. Automatic word recognition means that a reader is able to recognize a word as a whole entity (Adams 1990: 30). *Syntactic parsing* and *semantic proposition formation* refer to recognition of grammatical structures and clause-level meaning units respectively. Information at a word- and phrase level is stored and kept active in *working memory* for a few seconds as the necessary processes are carried out. The operative word here is speed because active information will be forgotten if it is not processed quickly enough. As Alderson (2015: 133) points out "[w]ithout properly functioning working memory, reading would not lead to comprehension of a text".

For lower-level processing to become automatic, readers need to have adequate knowledge of vocabulary items and grammatical structures. Without the necessary language knowledge, comprehension will simply not occur. The suggested vocabulary coverage, necessary for L2 readers to understand a text, ranges between 95% (Laufer 1989) and 98% (Hu & Nation 2000). These percentages reflect the probability rate at which adequate comprehension will most likely be reached. A more recent study concluded that if over 60% comprehension is the aim, 98% of the vocabulary needs to be familiar (Schmitt et al. 2011). Schmitt et al. (2011) also established a linear relationship between vocabulary coverage and comprehension. That is to say, the more words are known the better comprehension will be at any given proficiency level. However, even readers who obtained 100% coverage reached a maximum of 75.3% on the comprehension test. This demonstrates that vocabulary knowledge is merely one factor affecting comprehension. Syntactic knowledge–the recognition and knowledge of grammatical structures–also affects how much a reader understands. Shiotsu and Weir (2010) found that syntactic knowledge is, in fact, a stronger predictor of comprehension than vocabulary knowledge. However, these results should be viewed tentatively as Alderson and Kremmel (2013) later questioned the validity of the test development procedures used in the study. The relative significance of syntactic knowledge may be inconclusive but scholars agree that recognizing and processing syntax does play a key role in understanding a text (Alderson 2000; Bernhardt 2000). Lower-level processes are the basis for reading comprehension. The more a reader has to actively concentrate on lower-processes the less cognitive space there is for higher-level processing (Adams 1990: 32). Alderson (2015: 76) notes that "[l]earners, and SFL learners in particular, need a great deal of practice in using these lower-level skills in order to read faster and with better comprehension".

Higher-level processes encompass how readers connect new information from the text to understand it as a coherent whole. In order to do so, readers access their background information, monitor comprehension, and apply strategies according to their goals and purposes (Alderson 2015: 76). Higher-level processes comprise of the text model of comprehension, the situation model of reader interpretation, background knowledge use and inferencing, and executive control processes (Grabe & Stoller 2002: 19-29). When building *a text model of comprehension*, the reader accumulates and relates new idea units to existing ones to parse together the main point of the text (Grabe & Stoller 2002: 25). As the formation of a text model is taking place, the reader "will begin to project a likely

direction that the reading will take…the reader will begin to interpret the information from the text in terms of his or her own goals, feelings and background expectations" (Grabe & Stoller 2002: 27). Put simply, the reader builds *a situational model of reader interpretation.* How these models are built depends on the readers purposes, goals and the text being read. Narrative texts lend more opportunities for reader interpretation and evaluation thus directing the reader to begin building a situation model. Conversely, informative texts will more often direct readers to look for the relevant facts presented in the text and build a text model of comprehension (Alderson 2015: 78).

As the reader builds a model of comprehension, he or she draws on existing knowledge of the world and prior experiences to extract meaning beyond what is explicitly stated in the text. *Background knowledge* and *inferencing* allow readers to confirm or reject their predictions of the text, and to link new information to existing knowledge (Alderson 2015; Grabe & Stoller 2002). Background knowledge factors, also known as schemata, are anchored in schema theory. The theory holds that "any text…does not carry meaning by itself: rather, a text only provides directions for listeners or readers as to how they should retrieve or construct meaning from their previously acquired knowledge" (Carrell 1984c: 332-333). Schema theory maintains that comprehension is contingent on the reader's ability relate textual material to existing knowledge. Comprehension breakdown happens when the reader is unable to activate relevant schemata (ibid.). Conversely, possessing appropriate schemata of the culture, text type, genre, content, linguistic and textual forms or context of reading material will improve comprehension.

The fourth higher-level process is *executive control* which is the process of monitoring and controlling the complicated interactions happening between the other higher-level processes. Engaging in higher-level processing often requires conscious consideration on the readers' part meaning that these processes may not become automatic even for a fluent reader (Alderson 2015: 76).

2.1.2 Models of reading: bottom-up, top-down and interactive models

Cognitive processing is universal; all readers engage in lower and higher levels of processing as they read. Yet readers differ in abilities and behaviors. Models of reading enable researchers to account for these differences. Research distinguishes between bottom-up, top-

down, and interactive models of reading (Grabe & Stoller 2002: 31). A bottom-up reader "creates a piece-by-piece mental translation of the information in the text, with little interference from the reader's own background knowledge" (Grabe & Stoller 2002: 32). The reader focuses on individual lexical items and clauses to construct meaning. Top-down models, on the other hand, presume that the reader is guided by expectations and predictions. A top-down reader will strategically skim through the text to find information to validate expectations. Moreover, the reader relies heavily on existing background knowledge components to confirm or reject expectations (Alderson 2000: 17).

Over the past thirty decades, reading research has steered away from a strict dichotomy between bottom-up and top-down models. Interactive models assert that components of lower- and higher-level processes are equally important for comprehension (Alderson 2000). In other words, readers do not follow top-down or bottom-up model exclusively. There is conclusive evidence, particularly from eye movement research, demonstrating that qualities such as speed and precision are not the result of developed higher-level processes. Rather, fluent readers recognize all the letters in a word and process the majority of the words on the page (Adams 1990:30). They are both fast and precise because their lower-level processing is automated (Alderson 2000; Grabe 1991). Interactive models have been fruitful in explaining the variety of strategy uses and reading behaviors witnessed in readers.

2.1.3 Reading comprehension strategies

A skilled reader is able to monitor comprehension and apply strategies to mend comprehension breakdown. Reading strategies are vital in managing the simultaneous processes at play in comprehension. Various definitions for reading strategies have been offered. Grabe and Stoller (2002: 17) define reading strategies as "abilities that are potentially open to conscious reflection and use". Similarly, McNeil (2011: 885, parentheses original) describes reading strategies as "the conscious actions readers use to repair breakdowns in comprehension (cognitive strategies) or the deliberate actions readers use to monitor and oversee those attempts at repair (metacognitive strategies)". The operative word in both definitions is consciousness. The use of reading strategies requires active awareness on the readers part.

Numerous reading strategy checklists have been compiled both for educational and academic purposes (e.g. Davis & Bistodeau 1993; Hosenfeld et al. 1981 Olson, Duffy & Mack 1984). Individual strategies include skimming, rereading, guessing from context, skipping, using the dictionary, summarizing, making notes, using illustrations, and inferencing from textual clues. Although there is overlap between items in checklists, each checklist provides a unique set of items. Checklists are selective by nature and one list cannot account for the totality of all available strategies. However, most studies distinguish roughly between local/bottom-up and global/top-down strategies (Block 1986; 1992 Davis & Bistodeau 1993; Hosenfeld 1977; Sarig 1987). Any strategy that focuses on decoding individual words or phrases is a bottom-up strategy (skipping, using the dictionary, guessing). Top-down strategies concentrate on overall meaning. They require the reader to look across the whole text. Individual top-down strategies include summarizing information, inferring meaning from textual cues, and accessing relevant schemata.

Strategy research has focused on which strategies readers employ and how frequently they are used when reading in L1 and L2. Although there is some discrepancy between findings, numerous studies suggest that readers employ similar strategies when reading in their L1 and their L2 (Kong 2006; Maarof 2011; Sarig 1987). Sarig (1987) found that readers did transfer their L1 reading strategies into L2 reading but individual variety between each reader's strategy choices was striking. Kong (2006) also evidenced transference of strategies from L1 to L2. In this study of four Chinese adults, L2 proficiency and L1 reading experience exerted influence on the degree of transferability and the frequency of strategy use. In Maarof's (2011) study of Malaysian students at three proficiency levels, the advance proficiency students were the most active strategy users. There was significant overlap between the strategies readers employed when reading in L1 and L2. Conversely, a study by Nambiar (2009) found no transference of strategies from L1 to L2. Differences in data collection procedures, participants, materials may go a long way in explaining these discrepancies. There is, however, a large body of data indicating that L2 proficiency affects the choice of strategy used. Many studies have found that less proficient readers tend to favor bottom-up or local strategies while more proficient readers rely on top-down strategies to monitor and repair comprehension (Block 1986, 1992; Carrell 1989a; Ckizo 1980; Davis & Bistodeau 1993: Hosenfeld 1977).

Recognizing the need for more inquiry into readers' awareness of strategies, Carrell (1989b: 668) investigated the impact of metacognitive strategy training on reading comprehension. Her results strongly suggest that training in semantic mapping and experience-text-relationship (ETR) strategies enhance L2 reading ability. She called for extensive research on the effects of strategy training. This call has been dutifully answered in L2 reading research. It is now well-established that reading strategies can and should be explicitly taught. A meta-study on explicit reading strategy training (ERST) found that ERST enhanced L2 reading comprehension significantly (Taylor, Stevens & Asher 2006). Interestingly the meta-study also revealed a language knowledge level which has to be attained before strategy training exerts significant impact on comprehension (ibid.). In practice this means that older, more proficient students benefit from strategy training more than their younger counterparts. This is because younger readers generally have a lower language proficiency and still need to practice lower-level processing skills.

Thus far, I have established that comprehension is a complex process that requires a number of component skills working interactively. As Grabe (1991: 383) aptly summarizes, "reading involves both an array of lower-level rapid, automatic identification skills and an array of higher-level comprehension/interpretation skills". Meaning is actively constructed by the reader and influenced by various factors. The reader's purposes, motivation, language proficiency, strategy awareness and command of component skills all contribute to overall comprehension. It can be concluded that the comprehension process is universal but readers are different. I now turn to explore differences between L1 and L2 readers in more detail.

2.2 How do L1 and L2 reading differ?

Much of what is now known about L2 reading ability comes from L1 reading research (Bernhardt 2000). Although L1 and L2 reading share commonalities and can be modelled similarly (Hall 2002), scholars critique the tendency to view the two as part and parcel (Alderson 2015). L2 readers do differ from L1 readers in many ways. Describing these differences is impossible without first introducing the major theories that shaped L1 research during the 20th century. Most notable here is the 'psycholinguistic reading model'. Goodman (1967: 33) characterized reading as a 'psycholinguistic guessing game'. His model holds that reading is primarily "a selective process". A proficient reader samples text using minimal textual cues and draws heavily from prior knowledge to either confirm or reject

predictions. In contrast to earlier reading theories, this model emphasized the role of the reader as the active interpreter of information. Increasingly, researchers turned to investigate reader variables that affected comprehension. Schema theory, in particular, exerted influence on the perception of comprehension as happening between the text and the reader (Anderson & Pearson 1984).

The interest in L2 readers emerged as researches began to question the degree to which L2 readers conformed to these models and theories (Grabe 1988). Central considerations have been the transferability of L1 reading skills to L2 reading (Bernhardt & Kamil 1995) and the extent to which L2 reading is contingent on language competence (Alderson & Urquhart 1984; Bossers 1992). The latter question has yielded particularly useful results. Alderson and Urquhart (1984) were the first to question whether L2 reading was primarily a language problem or a reading problem. They concluded that both reading skills and language skills affect comprehension but that language exerts greater influence. Alderson and Urquahart (1984) established a 'linguistic threshold' which is a level of language proficiency a reader must reach and overcome before reading can begin to simulate that of a fluent L1 reader. Below the 'threshold' comprehension is expected to be difficult. In short, "[p]oor second-language reading performance is likely to be due to insufficient language knowledge" (Alderson 2000: 25). Clarke's (1980) 'short-circuit' hypothesis has been instrumental in demonstrating the degree to which language proficiency affects L2 reading strategies. He found that while "good readers perform better than poor readers in both languages…limited control over the language 'short circuits' the good reader's system, causing him/her to revert to poor reading strategies when confronted with a difficult or confusing task in the second language" (206). Language proficiency is a key determining factor in how well L2 readers are able to understand a text.

It is clear, that L1 and L2 readers approach a text from very different language proficiency standpoints. Whereas L1 readers already have an extensive vocabulary and a developed, "intuitive" sense of the grammatical structures, L2 readers generally approach the text with a lower language competence (Grabe 1991: 387). Moreover, unfamiliar or complex phrase structures, word order variation and orthographic differences pose problems for L2 readers (ibid.). In addition to language competence, Grabe (1991: 386) identifies language training, processing and social context as distinctive differences between the two. Social context, in his view, refers to the perceptions and practices of reading that a reader grows up with. Grabe

sees that social context can either enable or hinder reading in an L2. If the reader has access to various genres in L1 and reads in an environment that nurtures literacy, reading in L2 will be easier.

Finally, background knowledge factors account for differences between L1 and L2 readers. Schema-theoretical studies have shown that accessing or inducing relevant schemata—whether it be formal, content or cultural schemata—can help L2 readers breach gaps in comprehension and override linguistic barriers (Allen et al. 1988; Hudson 1982). For instance, L2 reading material that deals with a familiar culture enables readers to understand and remember the text better (Barnitz, 1986; Carrell, 1981a; Steffensen, Joag-dev & Anderson 1979). Carrell (1984a) demonstrated that familiarity with a story's formal conventions (formal schemata) enabled L2 readers to recall the story better. Looking at content schemata, Lee (1986) found that L2 readers across the proficiency scale relied on context, familiarity and transparency components to construct meaning.

Clearly L1 and L2 readers differ. The most significant difference comes from language proficiency: vocabulary and structural knowledge. In addition, social context influences how readers orient themselves toward reading material, and the existence of appropriate cultural, content or formal knowledge markedly influence readers' interpretations and overall comprehension of a given text. Building on what is known about L2 reading ability, I now turn to a consideration of how L2 readers cope with different text types. The specific focus will be on authentic and non-authentic texts as they are the object of inquiry in this study.

2.3 Authentic and non-authentic reading materials

An authentic text is one that is written for a genuine, authentic communicative purpose (Swaffar 1985: 17) In this study, authentic reading material refers exclusively to children's literature. The terms are used interchangeable. Children's literature is characterized as "fiction written for children to read for pleasure, rather than for didactic purposes" (Ghosn 2002: 172). Children's literature is primarily produced for native speakers. The genre covers everything from nursery rhymes and fairy tales to young adult fiction, comics and graphic novels (Bland 2013: 1).

Non-authentic reading material refers to commercially produced, language teaching textbooks. Language textbooks vary in many ways but can be characterized as simplified texts intended for language instruction (Ghosn 2013; Swaffar 1985). In practice, this means that lexical items, grammatical structures and content areas are carefully selected to fit the presumed needs of the language learner (Swaffar 1985: 17). This difference in purpose and intended audience determines what the reading material consists of, how it is structured, and what kind of behavior it allows for on the reader's part.

2.3.1 Rationales for using authentic material in language classrooms

There is no shortage of advocacy for literature-based L2 language instruction (e.g. Bland 2013; Collie & Slater 1990; Ghosn 2002, 2013; Lazar, 1993). A bulk of the more recent studies originate from the Middle-East, where scholars have examined the multifaceted effects of literature-based language programs on learning (e.g. Abdelhalim 2015; Al Darwish 2015, Hayik 2015; Rass & Holzman 2010). A frequently cited advocatory source comes from Collie and Slater (1990: 3-5). They argue that literature is authentic (in the sense defined above) and introduces learners to various forms and functions of language intended for native speakers. Secondly, literature offers 'cultural enrichment' by acquainting readers with the customs, values, beliefs and traditions of different geographical locations. Thirdly, literature provides 'language enrichment'. Rich, new vocabulary and complex structures, they argue, are embedded in a meaningful and memorable context. Finally, literature engages readers on a personal level. It evokes feelings and enables the reader to focus on features beyond the linguistics forms. In this way, it is seen to be highly motivating and helpful for the learning process.

Let us concentrate on the 'language enrichment' perspective. Ghosn (2013: 18) notes that the linguistic richness, the "variety of registers" and meaningful contexts of children's literature afford ample opportunities for increasing comprehension and language acquisition: "because stories come in so many different themes, motifs, and examples of diverse real-life situations…children become familiar with a wide range of language patterns, vocabulary words, idioms and metaphors". In addition to robust linguistic input, Swaffar (1981:188) points to the opportunities for developing strategic reading skills:

> The sooner students are exposed to authentic language, the more rapidly they will learn that comprehension is not a function of understanding every word, but rather of developing strategies for selecting and identifying multiple verbal and non-verbal cues, strategies essential in both oral and written communication.

Swaffar (1985) further argues that didactically oriented reading material, with its heavily edited and simplified language and additional aids (such as side-glossaries), limits learners' opportunities for independent meaning-making and inferencing (ibid.). Because authentic texts are constructed for various non-didactic purposes, they afford opportunities to practice top-down strategies such as reading for meaning, prediction, inferencing and skimming for relevant information (Swaffar 1985: 15). But what does research say about L2 learners' ability to read non-authentic and authentic texts?

2.3.2 Reading authentic and non-authentic texts in L2

There is a general consensus among researchers that text simplification enhances text comprehension (Crossely et al. 2014; Yano et al. 1994). However, easier does not automatically equate with better. Yano et al. (1994: 191) claim that simplified texts may limit language learning by "deny[ing] learners access to the items they need to learn". Their study showed that elaborated texts, which are more complex by readability measures, were understood just as well as simplified texts. It has also been found that lower proficiency L2 readers are able to handle authentic texts more competently than material developers and teachers give them credit for (Allen et al. 1988). In their study of German, French and Spanish L2 readers, Allen and team found that "not a single subject from the 105 randomly selected subjects in the study was incapable of gathering some meaning *correctly* from *each* text" (170, emphases original). Observations from Crossley et al. (2014) strongly suggest that reader variables such as background knowledge can have a significant effect on how well L2 readers handle authentic texts. Crossley et al. (2014) established that simplified texts were understood better and read more rapidly. Interestingly, readers with adequate background knowledge understood the authentic texts better than simplified texts. It was suggested that this was because authentic texts allowed for inference generation and "engaged readers in the comprehension process" (108).

The fact that authentic texts are linguistically and culturally more complex than graded texts cannot be contested. Children's literature makes use of more low-frequency words, longer sentences, and employs culturally specific, non-standard language and rhetorical features (Hall 2002). This complexity makes literary material markedly less readable for L2 readers with low language proficiency (Schulz 1981). However, as illustrated in this section, authentic reading material is beneficial for language acquisition, increasing vocabulary size, strategy training, critical thinking and inferencing. Provided that the language level of an authentic text is appropriate and readers are equipped with necessary background knowledge L2 readers can perform competently with authentic texts.

2.3.3 L2 reading in Finland

In this final section, I present an overview of L2 reading practices in Finnish language classrooms. The Finnish National Core Curriculum for Basic Education 2014 (FNCC) provides the guidelines and objectives for foreign language instruction. Text interpretation skills are detailed as one of these objectives. For grades 3-6 the objective for interpretation skills is "to guide the pupil to work with spoken and written texts with many different levels of difficulty, using different comprehension strategies" (The Finnish National Core Curriculum for Basic Education 2014: 237). The FNCC further specifies that vocabulary and structures are to be introduced through various text genres such as "short stories, plays, interviews, and lyrics" (ibid.). In other words, the core curriculum endorses the use of authentic linguistic materials and the development of strategic abilities. It is not well-known to what extent these objectives are realized in the classroom. What is known is that most Finnish L2 learners primarily read graded texts. As I mentioned in the introduction, textbooks and the accompanying exercise books are the primary educational material used in Finnish foreign language classrooms (Luukka et al. 2008). Domestically published teaching and learning materials for basic education are based on the national curriculum. This means that textbooks comply with the requirement of various text genres by providing imitations of authentic text genres such as interviews, reports, rhymes and stories.[1]

[1] Excerpts from actual authentic texts are rarely found in elementary school level textbooks. Excerpts of famous poems, short stories or song lyrics are typically used in upper-secondary level textbooks.

At the same time, the history of foreign language teaching practices still casts a shadow on contemporary language teaching and reading practices. For the greater part of the 20th century, Finnish foreign language education was modelled on the grammar translation method. Since the mid 1970´s foreign language education began adopting communicative language teaching approaches. Contemporary foreign language teaching aims to equip learners for real-life communicative encounters (Hildén & Kantelinen 2012).
Although the orientation is communicative, Hildén and Kantelinen (2012: 163) note that "the superiority of form over function is something of an unresolved issue still today". The tradition of focus on form is most strikingly visible in reading comprehension and vocabulary exercises accompanying reading texts. A typical comprehension exercise will ask pupils to find or produce equivalent lexical items in the target language. In doing so, the exercises simultaneously discourage reading for larger meaning segments (Swaffar 1985). Discrete point questions, cloze quizzes and multiple-choice questions are also commonly featured comprehension exercise types in Finnish textbooks.

Swaffar (1985: 15) critiques these types of exercise items for determining what is meaningful for reader and in so doing "direct[ing] students toward recognition of isolated facts". Textbook reading and the adjacent exercises teach learners to decode rather than to read for meaning. Consequently, when faced with other types of reading material, such as literature, readers may struggle to find or synthesize relevant information. Preoccupation with a literal translation of individual lexical items can result in L2 readers failing to understand the text as a whole, meaningful entity (Hall 2002). The terms 'extensive reading' and 'intensive reading' work well to describe this difference. The former describes reading for broad comprehension and the latter reading to identify the meaning of each word and structure (Schulz 1989: 43).

Based on what is generally known about L2 reading comprehension and strategy use and the state of Finnish L2 classroom reading practices, it is safe to hypothesize about the expected comprehension and strategy use of the participants in this study. First, language proficiency will likely determine the level of comprehension. Second, readers will generally cope better with the non-authentic material than the authentic literary material. Third, readers will favor bottom-up strategies and this will hinder the development of a text model, particularly in the case of the authentic material.

3 Research design

3.1 Data

This is a qualitative study. Data was collected using verbal protocols and semi-structured-interviews. Participants in the study were 12- year old sixth graders in a Finnish elementary school in the greater Helsinki area. A parental consent form was sent to one class of 22 pupils. Out of the cohort, four pupils obtained parental consent to participate in the study. The number of participants was deemed adequate for gathering qualitative, introspective data on reading.

Each participant (Pupils A-D) took part in two data collection sessions. Sessions were conducted individually with each pupil. The data collection took place at the pupils' school during regular school hours. The first session consisted of a verbal protocol and an exit interview lasting 45-50 minutes in total. The second set of data collection comprised of a shorter verbal protocol and a written recall lasting approximately 20 minutes in total.

3.2 Materials

The reading material consisted of four texts: two authentic and two non-authentic. The non-authentic texts were from a national English instruction textbook*, Yippee 6!*, published by Sanoma Pro. The textbook had five units with three chapters in each unit. Each chapter included an introductory start page, a main chapter text, a spread introducing native speaker cultures, and an extra reading passage intended higher proficiency students.

I set the following criteria in choosing the non-authentic texts. The texts had to represent prototypical examples of a textbook reading passages, they had to include images or illustrations, they had to be unfamiliar to the participants, and slightly above the anticipated reading level. In order to determine a prototypical example of a textbook text, I categorized all the texts according to types by frequency of appearance. The most frequently encountered text was an interview (40%) and the second most frequent text type was a report (20%). Hence, the first non-authentic text I chose was an interview from the end of the textbook. By choosing a passage from the end of the book, I ensured that pupils had not read it before and that it would include new words and structures. The theme of the chosen interview was

technology. The text presented examples of technology being utilized for humanitarian efforts. The passage consisted of two interviews between Adam–a young journalist–and two teachers who were involved in humanitarian projects in Sri Lanka and Zimbabwe respectively (see appendix 1). The text had 275 words of which 141 (51%) were unique. The average sentence length was 6.7 words. The proportion of low-frequency words was 19%. The second non-authentic text was a report on a music award show (see appendix 2). The total word count was 172 of which 56% were unique. The proportion of low-frequency words was 37%.

The criteria for the authentic passages were that they be from the same book and that both spreads include illustrations. The book had to be readily accessible in Finland and it had to be slightly above the participants anticipated reading level. I used the *Lexile Framework*, developed by MetaMetrics©, to compare difficulty levels between children's books. The *Lexile Framework* is an online tool which measures text difficulty in relation to readers' ability levels. A TOEFL Primary reading score chart was used to determine the correspondence between the Common European Framework of Reference (CEFR) levels and Lexile measures. The corresponding Lexile level range for a learner with A2 language proficiency was 325L-600L. The range was wide but since the pupils in this study had strong A2 level English, I decided that the book should have a Lexile of 550-650L. Once a few books, which met the criteria, were found they were searched in the *Lexile Framework* online database.

The authentic passages deemed suitable were from a book titled *See You Later, Gladiator*, written by Jon Scieszka. The book had a Lexile measure of 660L which was slightly higher than even a higher proficiency sixth grader would read at. Within a range from 100L below to 50L above his/her level, a 550L reader was expected to "comprehend the text well enough to understand it, while still experiencing some reading challenges" (*Lexile Framework* website). The first passage had 270 words of which 156 (58%) were unique. The average sentence length was 9.6 words and the proportion of low-frequency words was 22%. The passage opened with a scene of three, unarmed boys who have accidentally landed in ancient Rome because of a book that allowed them to time-travel. They are facing a gladiator armed with a trident in an arena. The gladiator is challenging the boys to a fight (see appendix 3). The second passage was from the beginning of chapter three (see appendix 4). In the scene,

the boys are stuck in a net trying to fend off the gladiator's blows. The passage had 116 words of which 67% were unique. The proportion of low-frequency words was 33%.

3.3 Methods

Data was collected using verbal protocols. Verbal protocol studies, or introspective studies, aim to extract information of cognitive processes through verbalization (Brown & Rodgers 2002). The method has been widely used in reading research. In the mid 1990's Pressley and Afflerbach (1995) recorded a total 65 primary and secondary studies which had used protocol analysis to chart the nature of reading comprehension. The methodology was chosen because it is one of the few means available for collecting information about mental processes and it is recognized as a valid method in reading research.

It is common to distinguish between three forms of verbal protocols: talk-alouds, think-alouds and retrospects (Ericsson & Simon 1984: 16). In a talk-aloud protocol, information is vocalized directly without verbal encoding, while a think-aloud necessitates verbal encoding before vocalization. Both types of reports happen concurrently with the task. Retrospective reports are given shortly after task completion and require the speaker to retrieve information (ibid.). The present study seeks to elicit both think-aloud reports during reading and retrospects immediately after reading.

It is clear that individual differences in participants' awareness of cognitive processes and their ability to verbalize them affect the content of the introspective data. The feasibility of collecting introspective data has been questioned many times over (see Brown & Rodgers 2002; Carrell 1989; Nisbett & Wilson 1977). In one of the earliest comprehensive works on verbal protocol methodology, Ericsson and Simon (1984: 27) tackle this methodological challenge and conclude:

> the accuracy of verbal reports depends on the procedures used to elicit them and the relation between the requested information and the actual sequence of heeded information. Invalid reports, like those discussed and obtained by Nisbett and Wilson, may be due to lack of access to thought (their claim), inadequate procedures for eliciting verbal reports, or requesting information that could not be heeded and hence reportable.

Based on these issues, Ericsson and Simon (1984) outlined strategies and procedures to optimize the chances of collecting reliable and valid introspective data. I took these 'best practices' (as well as ones provided by Brown & Rodgers 2002) into account when planning my research design.

Firstly, highly automatized linguistic processes are beyond introspection (Brown & Rodgers 2002). Hence, verbalization should be concurrent with the task, and tasks should enable deliberate and conscious consideration on the participant's part. This was taken into account by selecting reading texts that were slightly above the anticipated level of the participants. Secondly, participants need to practice the protocol method to minimize the differences between verbalization and introspection skills, and to ensure the collection of useful and rich data (Alderson 2000; Brown & Rodgers 2002). In the present study, pupils practiced the method with an English language children's book *The Mixed-up Chameleon*. When I deemed that the pupils had been acquainted with the verbal protocol method, the pupils were presented with the first reading text. Thirdly, the wording of instructions impacts the content of the protocol (Ericsson & Simon 1984). Therefore, I planned the exact wording of my instructions prior to data collection. In the first round of data collection, pupils were presented with two consecutive reading passages. They were instructed to read aloud from a sign-posted passage. Sign posts–often used in protocol studies–are "periodic markers in the text signaling the reader to momentarily stop and report" (Brown & Rodgers 2002: 60). Pupils were told that the content of the protocol was to be an informal restatement of what had just been read and *everything* that ran through their mind as they were reading. It was emphasized that the primary interest was in what they thought to themselves when they encountered an unfamiliar word. Pupils were instructed to take their time and to produce the introspection in L1. This decision was based on evidence that introspecting in the native language increases the scope of expression (Lee 1986: 353).

Some studies have opted to present participants with a strategy checklist or examples of features that can be reported on in hopes such guidance would elicit richer verbal data (Davis & Bistodeau 1993; Olson, Duffy & Mack 1984). I found this problematic. There is risk that such guidance will distort the data as participants will perform according to the researcher's wishes as opposed to their natural behavior. Therefore, I chose not to provide pupils with a list. While the participant read and introspected, I used a reading strategy checklist (see appendix 5) to mark every instance of a used strategy. I chose a checklist developed

by Hosenfeld et al. (1981) because it is recognized as functional and has been widely employed in protocol studies (Hall 2002). In the first round of data collection, the checklist was modified to exclude the use of dictionaries. This was done under the presumption that given the opportunity, pupils would resort to dictionary use thus limiting the display of their strategic capacity range

Immediately after completing the talk-aloud protocol, participants were asked to recall the content of the passage. They were instructed to recount the main idea of the text. The retrospects were collected to gather information about the overall comprehension of the text. I did not use a comprehension test to measure quantitative comprehension scores. Instead, I set the following criteria for comprehension. With regard to the non-authentic text, good comprehension was attained if the participant was able to recount what the two inventions were and why they were significant. For the authentic text, good comprehension was obtained if the participant could recount what the setting of the story was, who the characters were and what situation they were in. A short, semi-structured exit interview was conducted after completing the protocol (see appendix 6). The purpose of the exit interview was to clarify ambiguities that arose during the protocol and to inquire about participants' reading habits and attitudes toward the different reading materials. All the verbal data was recorded.

Originally, I intended to use the introspective data to analyzing reading behavior and strategy use. The retrospective data was to inform me on reading comprehension, and the exit interviews were to reveal reader attitudes. However, participants were less verbose than was expected and this affected both the analysis and the data collection procedures. During the first data collection session, participants focused on decoding rather than introspecting. In other words, they produced a wealth of talk-aloud data but the think-aloud data remained somewhat scant. It seemed probable that this was partly due to data collection procedures. Giving participants three simultaneous tasks (reading out loud, introspecting and restating) was cognitively too demanding.

To rule out the possible effects of collection procedures, I collected second set of data with the same participants, using the second passages I had chosen (see appendices 3 and 5). This time pupils read a shorter passage quietly to themselves and verbalized their thoughts only when they came across an unknown word or a phrase. After reading, pupils wrote a summary of the text. The written recalls were collected to evaluate what pupils had understood and

focused on. The hope was that eliminating the need to translate would free up cognitive space for introspecting. The reading strategy checklist was altered to include dictionary use as a strategy. The results for both sets of data were analyzed and are included in the study.

All verbal data was transcribed and analyzed qualitatively. Since participants translated both texts word for word, I was able to obtain some numerical data of differences in reading comprehension. Overall reading comprehension was charted by looking at vocabulary knowledge and structural knowledge. I determined the vocabulary coverage of each participant by calculating the proportion of unknown or erroneously translated lexical items. Erroneous translations were included because they signaled unfamiliarity with words and on occasion obstructed comprehension significantly. Lexical items refer to both individual words and prepositional/verbal/noun phrases. Structural knowledge was analyzed qualitatively because quantifying the number of items translated purely through structural knowledge could not be determined with any validity. Next, I divided the items in the strategy checklist into bottom-up/top-down categories. The verbal protocol transcriptions were segmented into thought units. I coded the thought units according to the strategies and general reading behaviors outlined in the strategy checklist and distinguished patterns. Following, I compared the results for each pupils' performance on each text. I applied a qualitative content analysis (Dörnyei 2007) on the interviews by highlighting points of interest and comparing pupils' answers. The second set of data was analyzed with similar procedures: think-alouds were coded according to strategies and written recalls were inspected according to the comprehension criteria I had set.

4 Results and analysis

In this chapter, I present the results obtained from the data. In the first section, I examine overall reading comprehension by providing a comparative analysis of the pupils' performance. In the second section, I detail the general reading behavior and strategy use of each pupil. In the final section, I examine the content of the exit interviews and present data on pupils' perceptions of English reading material and their own reading skills. Note that the pupils' quotes presented in this chapter are translations. Appendix 7 provides the original Finnish transcriptions of all quotes.

4.1 Reading comprehension of authentic and non-authentic texts

I begin with the results for the first research question: To what extent do young Finnish pupils comprehend non-authentic and authentic texts? The main finding was that all pupils were able to comprehend all texts to some degree but all pupils comprehended the non-authentic texts better than the authentic text. There was significant variance between how well pupils comprehended the authentic text. Language proficiency was found to be a key contributor to comprehension. Proficiency, in this study, refers to vocabulary knowledge and structural knowledge.

4.1.1 Vocabulary knowledge

I begin with the vocabulary knowledge of the first non-authentic text. Table 1 shows the percentage of unknown and erroneously translated items and specifies which items these were. Pupils C and D knew 99.03% of the unique lexical items. In practice, they only encountered one unknown word. Neither produced incorrect translations for words in the non-authentic text. Likewise, pupils A and B encountered one unknown word each but additionally translated words erroneously. Pupil A misunderstood two words (1.4%) and pupil B three words (2.1%). As table 1 illustrates, these translations were contextually close enough to the correct words and therefore did not obstruct meaning making. Pupil A's overall vocabulary coverage was 97.9% and B's was 97.2%. The vocabulary coverage of all pupils was either above or close to the 98% mark established as the rate at which

comprehension is likely to happen (Schmitt et al. 2011). This meant that all pupils were able to understand the content of the non-authentic passage well.

	Pupil A	Pupil B	Pupil C	Pupil D
Unknown words	Well (0.7%)	Well (0.7%)	Clever (0.7%)	Engineers (0.7%)
Erroneous translations	Engineers (moottori), lives (maailmamme) (1.4%)	Local (kansainvälinen), poor (pieni/säälittävä), engineers (laite/pumppu) (2.1%)		
Total	2.1%	2.8%	0.7%	0.7%

Table 1. Unfamiliar words and erroneous translations in non-authentic text.

The verbal retrospects, or recalls, provide qualitative evidence of the pupils ability to synthesize the main idea and provide accurate details from the text.

(1) A: In the Sri Lanka bit it told about how they could learn to use a computer because they wouldn't have money for that otherwise. And in the Zimbabwe bit it was about them getting water from closer by and that the water was cleaner.

(2) B: So this text was about technology and how in the modern world it can help a lot of people…so in the other text it talked about how they used a water pump to safe the water supply of the children and adults.
I: and how about the first story, what was the invention there? The whole in the wall thing.
B: Oh right, it was like a computer-type thing where little kids could go play with them and they were taught to use the technology.

(3) C: How technology could be utilized in different places in the world.
I: And what were those ways?
C: Well, the first one was to delight children and the second was to ease people's lives.

(4) D: It was about how technology can help the world.
I: And what were the examples?
D: Well, was in Sri Lanka, well there kids could use computers and learn new things. And then in Zimbabwe they got the pump and then they got clean water.

I now turn to the vocabulary coverage of the first authentic text. Table 2 below shows that in comparison to the first text, all pupils encountered a larger quantity of unknown items. With 0.6%, pupil C had the lowest increase in unknown words, while pupil B had the sharpest increase of 7.6%. Pupils A and C fell between these two: A with an increase of 5.1% and D with 3.8%. Pupils C and D had a higher overall vocabulary coverage than their peers. Pupil C knew 98.7% of the words and pupil D knew 95.5%. Both produced incorrect translations for three items (1.9%). The overall vocabulary coverage for pupil C was 96.8% and 93.6% for pupil D. In their case, incorrect translations were contextually very close to the correct translations and did not obscure meaning. Both were able to retain the main idea of the passage despite falling below the 98% coverage mark. Pupils A and B knew less words and produced more incorrect translations than their peers. Pupil A knew 94.2% of the individual words and produced erroneous translations for seven items (4.5%) in the passage. Pupil B knew 91.7% of the words and incorrectly translated 12 items (7.7%). In other words, both had a lower overall vocabulary coverage than C and D. Pupil A's overall coverage was 89.7%. Pupil B had the lowest coverage of 84%.

	Pupil A	Pupil B	Pupil C	Pupil D
Unknown words	about to die, salute, long-handled, pitchfork, crouched, loincloth, sank, for a way, with the (5.8%)	sneakers, sank, into, deep, sand, trident, waved, long-handled, pitchfork, in front of, the size of, impatient, with the (8.3%)	loincloth, pitchfork (1.3%)	salute, wave, net, long-handled, pitchfork, crouched, loincloth (4.5%)
Erroneous translations	net (netti), look like (sanoi), impatient (raivokas), deal (kauppa), wrestling (tappelu), accident (onnettomus), poke (tapella) (4.5%)	about to die (kuolla meitä vastaan/meissä), net (netti), like he's kidding (miltä luulee näyttävänsä), waving (tyyppinen), crouched (eteemme), loincloth (asu), time-travel (mene aikaa matkustamiseen), for a way out (hämmästyneenä), dragged into (annoin itseni uskoa), squeaked (kuiskasi), rising (särisi), poke (tuhota) (7.7%)	salute (ylistää), accident (tapaturma), trident (tridentti) (1.9%)	accident (onnettomuus), wrestling (paini), trident (haarukka-juttu) (1.9%)
Total	10.3%	16%	3.2%	6.4%

Table 2. Unfamiliar words and erroneous translations in authentic text.

Inspecting the content of C's and D's verbal recalls (5)-(6) further demonstrates that these pupils had grasped the central elements of the text: the setting and the situation.

(5) C: Some boys had managed to time-travel somewhere and then they found themselves in a gladiator arena.

(6) D: This is about some guys who time-travel to Rome and then they have to fight against a gladiator.

Pupils A and B faced more difficulties with the authentic text. As table 2 shows, some of incorrect translations pupils A and B produced were contextually inappropriate. For example, both translated the phrase "the man who had spoken waved a net" as "the man who had spoken online". This resulted in severe misunderstanding on several occasions.

The retrospects produced by A and B also demonstrate that they were not able to grasp the central elements of the text. Pupil A's recall (7) shows that he remembered specific details from a number of sentences but was unable to recognize that the characters were actually in ancient Rome. Additionally, he did not understand who the characters were or how they had gotten into the threatening situation.

(7) A: There was one guy who was somehow threatening them with some fork. And they thought they might be in Rome when there were gladiators. And then one of them thought he might be Santa Claus.
I: Do you think they were in Rome or did they just think they were there?
A: They only thought they were there.
I: Where were they really?
A: They were in some backyard or somewhere.

Pupil B's recall (8) illustrates that she was able to place the characters in the correct setting but failed to grasp the nature of the situation the characters were in.

(8) B: As I understood it, this told about some guys who were in a gladiator arena in ancient Rome. And then there was a mention of a book, so would this have something to do with a book? Well, I think it told about olden-time Rome and --like it shows here on the picture—about these normal-looking boys who wanted to be gladiators.

Vocabulary knowledge contributed significantly to the comprehension of the passages. This was particularly visible in the data from the authentic text. Those with higher vocabulary coverage produced more accurate translations while they read and were able to relate the central elements of the text post-reading. However, vocabulary knowledge alone did not explain the differences in overall comprehension. A comparison between pupils A and D working on the authentic texts demonstrated this. These pupils had significant uniformity in

the words both reported not knowing (see table 2 for reference). Yet pupil D retained the main idea of the text, whereas A did not. I turn to structural knowledge to explain this difference.

4.1.2 Structural knowledge

Knowledge of grammatical components such as clause structures, prepositional phrases, verb conjugation, and participles was a contributing factor to the overall comprehension of the texts. When pupils faced unfamiliar words, those who demonstrated existing structural knowledge were able to keep meaning intact. Conversely, a lack of appropriate structural knowledge contributed to the loss of meaning. The first non-authentic text was written in simple past tense, which all pupils were able to translate correctly. This demonstrates that they were familiar with the tense. The authentic text was grammatically more complex. The text was organized into dialogue segments written in present tense and narrative segments written in simple past tense. The text included past perfect and conditional aspects, participles and prepositional phrases. Pupils C and D, who had a higher level of vocabulary knowledge, also displayed more competence in recognizing and utilizing grammatical knowledge than their peers. Following, I will present examples of instances where structural knowledge enabled readers to retain the main idea of a sentence, even when they did not understand individual words.

The first instance is from the beginning of the authentic passage which read: "you who are about to die salute me" (1). The sentence included two distinct structural elements: the prepositional phrase about to and the verbal phrase salute me. The unfamiliar verb salute coupled with the prepositional phrase rendered the sentence incomprehensible to pupils A and B. Quote (9) shows each pupil's translation of the sentence.

(9) A: You who is…[*in English*] die…salute… I don't know.
B: You who is die against or in us.
C: You who is dying worship me.
D: You who is about to die, do something to me.

Pupils C and D had a better understanding of the prepositional phrase and recognized salute as a verb. This enabled them to retain a more coherent understanding of the sentence.

The second instance is found in the final exchange of the text which read:

> "Then why don't you explain this little accident to our friend with the trident?'
> 'With the what?' said Fred." (3)

Pupils A and B did not know the noun trident and did not seem to recognize the prepositional phrase with the. Their translations demonstrate that this lack of structural knowledge altered the meaning of the exchange quite significantly.

(10) A: Why don't you explain this little accident to that friend of yours.
What, said Fred.

(11) B: Well, why don't you explain this little accident to our friend. What for?

Even though neither C or D knew the meaning of trident, familiarity with the prepositional phrase enabled them to produce cohesive, accurate translations of the exchange between Fred and Sam.

(12) C: Why don't you then explain our accident to our friend with the trident.
With the what?

(13) D: Then why don't you explain the little accident to our friend with the big fork thing.
With the what?

A third example of syntactic knowledge was briefly mentioned in section 4.1.1. The sentence in question read: "the big guy who had spoken waved a net" (1). Familiarity with the conjugated verb tense waved and the aspects form had spoken served pupils C and D in keeping whole sentence meaning intact. Quote (14) depicts each pupil's translation attempt of the sentence.

(14) A: The man who has spoken on the net.
B: The guy who had spoken on the net a lot.
C: The guy who spoke waved a net.
D: The big guy who spoke did something.

Here pupils A and B did not recognize the past tense form of wave. Instead they skipped it and formulated a meaning based on the words they did know resulting in a logical but incorrect translation. Subject C and D were able to identify two distinct verbs within the sentence and this aided them in their comprehension.

To review the result thus far, overall comprehension was impacted by both vocabulary knowledge and structural knowledge. Those with better vocabulary knowledge produced more accurate recalls and translations. Structural knowledge displayed a similar trajectory. The pupils who were more familiar with the grammatical functions and categories of words seemed to be able to monitor and control their meaning making better. The non-authentic text was comprehended better by all pupils. This is clear from the protocol data but it was also confirmed in the exit interviews, as all pupils reported that the non-authentic text was easier to read.

4.2 Strategy use and reading behavior

Following, I present the result for the second research question: how do pupils' strategy use and reading behavior differ when reading textbook material and English children's literature? The main finding was that all pupils read both texts using similar bottom-up strategies. The strategies used did not differ greatly from text to text but all pupils used reparative strategies more frequently when reading the authentic text. There was no evidence that text type affected strategy use. Instead, language proficiency and existing reading practices seemed to exert influence on reading behavior and strategy use.

In the first set of data collection, pupils focused heavily on decoding as accurately as possible. Put differently, they were bottom-up in their approach to the reading task. They regarded each word as equally important and translated word by word. When pupils were unable to translate, their most frequently used strategies were guessing meaning or skipping the word. Both of these strategies are bottom–up in nature. The need to skip was verbalized explicitly as shown in the following examples:

(15) A: Now we have our own…what is "well"? I don't know.
(16) D: That fork-waving guy… something…in front of us.

It was, therefore, easy to determine the exact number skipped words. The instances where pupils guessed meaning were harder to determine, as this strategy was not always explicitly verbalized. In addition to verbalization, hesitation and a questioning tone were used as signifiers of guessing. Table 3 shows that the overall proportion of guessed or skipped words

was higher for the authentic text. This is because pupils encountered a larger quantity of unknown words. In addition, there was significant individual variance between pupils.

	Pupil A		Pupil B		Pupil C		Pupil D	
	G	**S**	**G**	**S**	**G**	**S**	**G**	**S**
Non-authentic	1.4%	0.7%	0.7%	0.7%	0.0%	0.7%	0.0%	0.7%
Authentic	3.9%	5.8%	5.1%	8.3%	1.3%	1.3%	0.6%	4.5%

Table 3. Guessed (G) and skipped (S) words in authentic and non-authentic texts.

Since A and B had lower language proficiency, they resorted to reparative strategies more often than C and D. This had an effect on how pupils were able to engage in higher-level processing. When reading the first non-authentic text, all pupils were able to build a text model. In other words, they understood what the writer intended for them to understand (see quotes (1)-(4) for reference). But when reading the first authentic text, C and D built a text model while A and B had to resort to filling gaps in understanding with their own interpretations. Unable to develop a complete text model, these readers constructed situation models of interpretation that offered a logical yet incorrect understanding of the text.

Skipping and guessing were the most frequently used strategies for both the first non-authentic and authentic text. However, there were isolated instances where other strategies were used. Table 4 shows which strategies each pupil used while reading the non-authentic text. In the table, X signifies a single use, XX signifies numerous instances of use and – signifies strategy not used. With regard to the non-authentic text, the scarce use of strategies is explained by the lack of need for them. All pupils understood roughly 97-99% of the words rendering the use of reparative strategies mostly obsolete.

Strategy	Pupil A	Pupil B	Pupil C	Pupil D
Meaning	-	-	-	-
Skip	X	X	X	X
Context	-	XX	-	-
Grammar	-	-	-	-
Evaluation	-	-	-	-
Inference	-	-	-	-
Continues	X	X	X	X
Cognate	-	-	-	-
Background	-	XX	-	-
Analysis	-	-	-	-
Sense	-	-	-	-
Meaning 2	-	-	-	-
Chance	-	-	-	-
Illustration	-	-	-	-
Skip 2	-	XX	X	-
Follow	-	-	-	-
Clue	-	-	-	-

Table 4. Instances of strategy use in non-authentic text.

Pupils B and C skipped words they deemed unnecessary for total phrase or paragraph meaning. Pupil B demonstrated the most variety in strategy use. As quote (17) shows, she referred back to information presented in previous sentences, thus using the context to confirm meaning. The use of context is underlined.

(17) So you think holes in the wall can help them?
B: So you think that these holes in walls-- or however you'd say that-- can really <u>help these</u> <u>small children.</u>

Additionally, pupil B used background knowledge to elaborate beyond a literal translation. For example, the text did not explain why unclean water was undesirable but B used her

background knowledge of the world to enrich her understanding. Background knowledge use is underlined.

(18) B: Many people in Zimbabwe unfortunately do not get water as easily as other people. And quite often this water can also be unclean and there can be many infectious diseases in it.

Pupil B was also the most strategic reader of the authentic text. She used the illustrations to confirm her understanding of who the characters were. On two occasions, she read to identify meaning rather than words. In addition, she drew on her background knowledge of ancient Rome to situate the characters in the setting.

(19) B: See you later, gladiator, and gladiators where these old I think Romans. I think they were like bullfighters or something. I can't remember anything else from my history book.

The other pupils employed two other strategies in addition to skipping and guessing: pupils A and C skipped a word they deemed unnecessary and pupil D used the illustration to confirm her understanding.

(20) D: It's that *(points to illustration of pitchfork)*. What is that in Finnish? It's what they use in the countr—It's always like I know what the word means but I don't know how to explain it Finnish.

These isolated instances of strategy use were present but they do not reflect the general strategic behavior of the pupils. Table 5 below illustrates that the range of strategy use was not significantly greater or more varied when reading the authentic text. Most importantly, table 5 illustrates what pupils did not do. Pupils were unable to access top-down strategies such as reading for meaning rather than words, using various textual clues to confirm or reject interpretations, using the context of preceding or succeeding sentences, evaluating their guesses, analyzing unknown words or inferencing from the title.

Strategy	Pupil A	Pupil B	Pupil C	Pupil D
Meaning	-	-	-	-
Skip	XX	XX	X	XX
Context	-	-	-	-
Grammar	-	-	-	-
Evaluation	-	-	-	-
Inference	-	-	-	-
Continues	XX	XX	X	XX
Cognate	-	-	-	-
Background	-	X	-	-
Analysis	-	-	-	-
Sense	-	-	-	-
Meaning 2	-	XX	-	-
Chance	-	-	-	-
Illustration	-	X	-	X
Skip 2	X	-	X	-
Follow	-	-	-	-
Clue	-	-	-	-

Table 5. Instances of strategy use in authentic text.

As was explained in the chapter 3, I collected a second set of data with an alternative set up, to test whether the reading behavior and strategy use witnessed in the first round of data collection was due to collection procedures. Although the second data collection set-up allowed readers to focus on introspection, strategy use remained mostly veiled because pupils read quickly and produced little verbalization. Clear misunderstandings in the written recalls illustrated that the authentic text had contained a number of words pupils were

unfamiliar with and should have stopped at but did not. When pupils did pause to introspect, they used the following strategies. A and D expressed which words they were stuck on and used the dictionary to attribute meaning. Pupil B inferred contextually that "patiently" had something to do with waiting. Pupil D demonstrated similar inferencing skills. She stopped at "gradually" and identified it as an adverb based on the sentence. She did not look the word up as she did not see it necessary for totally phrase meaning. Table 6 details the instances and words pupils paused at when reading the second set of non-authentic and authentic texts.

	Pupil A	Pupil B	Pupil C	Pupil D
Non-authentic text 2	1 (audience)	1 (patiently)	1 (ambassador)	0
Authentic text 2	2 (trident, ancient)	0	0	1 (gradually)

Table 6. Words stopped at during reading.

Pupils were explicitly asked about their reading strategies in the exit interviews. Their self-reported strategy use revealed that pupils B and D were aware of both bottom-up and top-down strategies. Pupil B listed four strategies: inferring from clause structure, looking at the illustrations for clues, using a dictionary, and skipping. Three of these were utilized during the protocols but skipping to a much greater degree than the others. Pupil D reported her primary strategy to be dictionary use. She also mentioned inferring from context and looking at illustrations. Pupils A and C reported relying mainly on dictionaries or external help. Pupil C said he would usually try to remember whether he had heard the word and if he was certain he had not he would ask someone. Pupil A said he usually looked up words in the dictionary or relied on the help of the teacher or a friend. Reviewing pupils' performance on all texts reveals that B and D were more varied strategy users and had metacognitive awareness of a larger range of strategies than A and C. Interestingly, as will be shown in section 4.3.1, pupils B and D were also the more active readers of the group. This may indicate a link between reading practices and strategy development. All pupils, however, relied mostly on bottom-up strategies. Pupils were aware of comprehension breakdown but did not demonstrate a varied use comprehension strategies to mend them. Explanation and implications of this are discussed in the next chapter.

The reading behavior of the subjects can be described as follows. All pupils were able to understand the non-authentic texts because their reading was not slowed down by comprehension repair efforts. When A and B read the first authentic text, the decoding effort taxed working memory to a degree that reading slowed down simultaneously "decaying" comprehension (Pressley & Afflerbach 1995: 65). C and D, with better language proficiency and more automated lower-level processing were able to keep meaning intact despite relying on bottom-up strategies. When reading the second authentic text, A and B faced an opposing problem. In this case, they read too fast: "decoding … occur[ed] but comprehension [was] low" (ibid.). Pupils C and D also read fast but, once again, had the needed language proficiency to attain comprehension.

The term 'bottom-up' describes pupils' strategy use. However, pupils demonstrated engagement in both lower- and higher-level processing. The written recalls from the second set of data demonstrate this. With the non-authentic text (see appendix 2), all pupils were able to build a text model relaying the essential information from the text. Quotes (21) and (22) provide examples from A and B.

(21) A: Today we are in Dublin, the capital or Ireland giving out awards to the world's best music artists. We are the city's old and great theater. There is also a great orchestra with us at the theater. We are giving out awards to the world's best pop, rock and classical artists.

(22) B: Yippee World filmed the world music award gala live. It was in a music hall in Dublin, Ireland. They gave out awards in for example rock and classical music.

In the case of the authentic text (see appendix 4), pupils C and D displayed the development of a text model of comprehension, while A and B–with lower language proficiency–constructed situation models of interpretation. The following three quotes demonstrate a progression from a recall anchored in a text model to a recall that is highly interpretative. Quote (23) depicts C's recall, built on a text model.

(23) The gladiator struck his trident to the ground trying to hit x. Then x took the sword and waved it around like some kind of farmer and hit back the gladiator's blows repeatedly. The agitated gladiator yelled: die like real gladiators! X replied we totally won't die! We use ancient self-defense techniques.

Quote (24) shows A's recall, which recounts some elements of the text correctly but fills relevant gaps in understanding with interpretation:

(24) A: Today we are visiting a gladiator. Sam has a wooden sword with him in case the gladiator attacks. The gladiator threatens him with his sword but we were able to get it away from him.

Quote (25) illustrates a highly interpretative recall that does not retain any of the central elements of the text accurately:

(25) B: The gladiators were in the middle of practice. Their leader was evaluating them and that's why at the end he yelled: die like a real gladiator!

A similar state of affairs was visible in first set of data. As quotes (1)-(4) showed, when reading the non-authentic text, all pupils were able to build a text model. In other words, they understood what the writer intended them to understand. When reading the authentic text C and D built a text model while A and B had to resort to filling gaps in understanding with their own interpretations.

To review, pupils' strategy use did not differ according to text type. In this study, two of the pupils displayed knowledge of a range of both top-down and bottom-up strategies but all relied on bottom-up strategies when reading all texts. The translation method pupils used was successful for those who had more automated lower-level processing skills and better language proficiency. These pupils build a text model of comprehension for all texts. Conversely, those with less developed lower-level processing skills and lower language proficiency struggled to keep meaning intact when reading the more demanding authentic texts. They filled gaps in understanding with logical interpretations but this resulted in a misunderstanding of the central message of the authentic texts.

4.3 Reader perceptions and attitudes

I now move onto the results for the third research question: what are pupils' perceptions of reading habits, English reading materials and their own reading skills? I will begin with the results on the perceptions of habits and skills.

4.3.1 Reading habits and reading skills

All four pupils read on a weekly basis in their free time. Pupils B and D surfaced as the most enthusiastic readers. Pupil B participated regularly in a book club and pupil D characterized reading as a hobby. Pupil A seemed to rely on external motivation to engage in reading, and pupil C viewed reading pleasure as depended on the situation.

(26) A: I usually read in my own room and I read just normal books. Like for example Kunnari-books, or other normal books. It's alright. Like if mom says I have to read, it's not boring. It's like pretty ok to read.

(27) B: Well, I like reading a lot and I read a lot. I like fantasy stories and such that have a little bit of excitement. And sometimes I like reading basic, diary-type, light readers.

(28) C: Sometimes reading is so boring and unmotivating but sometimes it's really fun. If I have a good book or if I read at the right time. If I'm doing something else and then I have to read, that's when I definitely will refuse to read. Or if I'm tired or just no in the right state.

(29) D: …And I might have like five books half-finished on my nightstand, so I read quite a lot…Some sci-fi books and some drama books.

Pupils had a positive self-image of themselves as L1 readers. When asked to give themselves a numerical grade (4-10) for reading in Finnish, pupil A evaluated his skills as corresponding with a grade 8-9, pupil C gave himself a grade 8 while B and D gave themselves a 9.5-10 and 9 respectively. B and D explicitly expressed that they viewed themselves as skilled readers. All four pupils read mainly in their L1.

The material pupils read in English consisted primarily of non-authentic textbook reading passages, both in the classroom and as homework. Other sources of English reading material were reported to be social media posts, online communication, such as instant messaging, as well as signs and menus when traveling to English-speaking countries. Pupils had very little experience reading children's books in English. All reported having tried at least once but none were in the habit of reading for pleasure in English. Despite limited experience and the awareness that English children's books were challenging, pupils had self-confidence in their English reading abilities.

(30) A: I was looking for a book to read because we didn't have anything I wanted to read, so then I found this book on the shelf and read it. It was maybe for English-speaking children. It was like a little bit difficult sometimes. But I understood it.

(31) B: We were in America and we went to a book store and my mom had to control me because I wanted to buy all the books…Well, we bought this book called *Summer of Lost and Found,* and I read page one and I didn't understand anything. Now, just a few weeks ago, I tried again and I understood a lot more. So, it's been on my bookshelf this year and I think if I want a bit of challenge after English homework I'll start reading it. Even though its's meant for American kids my age.

(32) C: Yes, I've read one adventure book. It was pretty easy to read. Except there were some small things I didn't understand clearly enough. But it didn't bother me that much.

(33) D: I don't really read books in English that much. But I think, when I've read something in Finnish it would be fun to read them in English, like Harry Potter. Because it would be fun to see if they are similar.

Another indication of a positive reader-image was that pupils evaluated their English reading skills either higher than or only around one numerical grade lower than their Finnish reading skills. Pupil A graded himself at an 8, B gave herself a 9, C evaluated his skills as corresponding to a grade 10 and D gave himself a grade 8.5. The lower grade was attributed to poorer reading comprehension.

(34) I: Why did you give yourself a lower grade in English than in Finnish?
D: Because, well I do understand texts better in Finnish than in English.

Pupils correlated good L2 reading skills primarily with reading comprehension. When asked to characterize a skilled reader of English, all reported that first and foremost a skilled reader understood the whole text. Other desirable qualities mentioned were reading speed and recollection abilities. Comprehension was seen as synonymous with decoding. For example, pupil A said that a skilled reader "understands and can translate a text into Finnish". Pupil B highlighted existing vocabulary knowledge as a prerequisite of skilled reading/decoding.

(35) B: They have been taught a rich vocabulary so they can understand something. It helps to be able to translate the words into Finnish in your head. If you want to be a good English reader it's good to know basic words. When you understand, you don't even notice that you're reading. Everything gets automatically translated in your head. Then you can read the text without any worries. That's a really good feeling.

The interviews showed that reading Finnish literature was familiar to all pupils; activity in which they engaged regularly. As was anticipated, reading English children's literature was

not habitual to any of the pupils. However, all pupils had a positive self-image of themselves as readers of Finnish and English. This is a promising result with regard to the uses of English children's literature in the language classroom. In the interviews, pupils expressed their opinions of the current classroom reading materials and the prospect of including literature in the classroom reading repertoire. Following, I will present the results of this inquiry.

4.3.2 Attitudes toward non-authentic and authentic materials in class

Pupils had mixed opinions about non-authentic reading passages. The general consensus was that reading enjoyment varied from text to text. The less enjoyable texts were characterized as either too easy, inauthentic or dated. Additionally, repetitions of the same chapter were thought to be cumbersome.

(36) B: The chapters are, well some are thankfully a bit more challenging but some are terribly easy so I don't feel like reading them at all.

(37) C: Well some are a little annoying because they're trying to be something but they are fake. But some are pretty nice and interesting. And well, they are a little old.

(38) D: They are nice but sometimes we read them over so many times that I get tired of them.

Attitudes toward using English children's books in the classroom ranged from neutral to positive. Pupil A said he did not have a preference as to what texts were used in class, textbook or literary. Pupil B gave a detailed justification for why she thought it was a good idea to include literary reading material in English classes.

(39) B: It would be a good idea because it would help kids' English skills. Both verbal and mental. We started English pretty late in third grade and I think it would be good to get English throughout life because English is what you'll use when you grow up. Like any job you get, you're going to need the language. So, it would be pretty important to know it and you can learn from children's books and also by putting effort into the reading homework. So, I think that it would be a really good idea to start reading more actively in class.

Similarly, C and D viewed the prospect of reading literature in English classes positively.

(40) C: Well, I like those kinds of books [pointing to *See You Later, Gladiator*] and the idea of reading them in class. I don't know, it would just be fun to read together in class.

(41) D: Well, yeah it would be [a good idea], you could for example assign reading homework to read a children's book and then we could make presentations in class.

Despites some of the pupils struggling to understand the literary text during the protocol, and despite recognizing that children's books are more challenging, none of the pupils were opposed to the idea of using literature in the language classroom.

5 Discussion

In this chapter, I revisit each of the research questions separately. I analyze the results in relation to previous studies and highlight possible implications for classroom practices. In the final section, I discuss the limitations of this study and present possible directions for future studies concerning Finnish pupils as readers.

5.1 Reading comprehension of non-authentic and authentic material

The results for the first research question indicate that pupils were able to understand the texts to the extent that they possessed the needed language skills. The non-authentic texts were understood better by all pupils because they had the necessary level of language proficiency to handle the texts. With regard to the non-authentic texts, pupils' vocabulary range corresponded to the established 98% vocabulary coverage rate (Schmitt et al. 2011). The influence of background knowledge factors was not accounted for in this study. However, as the interviews showed, all pupils had significantly more experience with the content and formal schemata of the textbook passages than those of literary works. Based on previous studies detailing the effects of schemata (see Barnitz 1986; Carrell 1984a; Lee 1986) it is reasonable to suggest that familiarity with the formal and content conventions of the non-authentic texts also supported the comprehension process.

All pupils faced comprehension issues when reading the authentic texts. Here again the level of language proficiency was a significant contributor to comprehension. Those with a higher vocabulary coverage and better structural knowledge were able to keep meaning intact. Results on the reading comprehension also evidence a linear relationship between vocabulary coverage and reading comprehension: the better the vocabulary knowledge the greater the comprehension of the text. This result is in line with findings by Schmitt et al. (2011). Additionally, results draw connections to the 'language problem' perspective (Alderson & Urquhart 1984) in that the main cause of trouble was the lack of adequate language skills. At the same time, it is important to note that all pupils were able to understand all texts to some degree.

The results of the present study are in line with earlier research which has established that simplified texts are understood better by L2 readers (Crossley et al. 2014). This is because

simplified texts correspond better to L2 readers' developing language skills. It is therefore not surprising that pupils felt the simplified textbook reading passages to be easier and did understand them better. In this, the results enforce that simplified texts have a vital role in language education. Textbook reading passages introduce learners to high-frequency words and the basic grammatical structures of the language. They lay down the foundations for developing language skills. Without this foundation, attempting to read more complex authentic texts will be difficult, if not impossible. In other words, textbooks reading has its place in the Finnish L2 classroom. However, as previous studies have cautioned (Swaffar 1985; Yano et al. 1994), simplified texts may have a negative effect on the development of reading skills. This study examined one important reading skill: the use of reading strategies. As the following section shows, the results for strategy use and reading behavior suggest that textbook reading practices may restrict the development of reading skills.

5.2 Reading behavior and reading strategy use

The main finding was that reading behavior and strategies used did not differ according to the text type. This parallels the findings of Allen et al. (1988) who found that text type did not explain variance in ability. In this study, pupils approached both texts with similar bottom-up reparative strategies, namely skipping, using the dictionary and guessing the meaning of words. This finding is in line with previous studies which have established a correlation between language proficiency and bottom-up strategies (Block 1986; 1992 Davis & Bistodeau 1993; Hosenfeld 1977; Sarig 1987). In terms of strategies, the differences were in frequency of use rather than type of strategy used. Pupils approached the texts in a uniform fashion. All focused on translating as accurately as possible. They read 'intensively' rather than 'extensively' (Schulz 1981). When they encountered an unknown word, they relied on bottom-up strategies to repair comprehension breakdown. Pupils with weaker language skills relied more on reparative strategies, but as the strategies only left them with gaps or guesses, they were unhelpful for meaning construction. This draws a parallel to Kong's (2006) finding that readers tended to rely on strategies more when reading in L2 than when reading in L1.

Similarly, it was language proficiency that seemed to explain the differences in general reading behavior. Pupils with better language proficiency built a text model of comprehension for both the non-authentic and the authentic texts. Pupils with lower

language proficiency tended to form more interpretative models. This finding mirrors what Alderson (2015: 79) states:

> weaker readers who have difficulty developing a text model of comprehension may, possibly because of weaker vocabulary, tend to rely on a situation model of comprehension, by grasping at the straws offered by a few known words and building an incomplete or inaccurate situation model.

In this study, particularly pupil B's reading behavior illustrated a 'short circuit' (Clarke 1980) in action. Pupil B was aware of multiple top-down strategies, displayed strategy range and frequently read for pleasure but when presented with a demanding text her "limited control over the language" forced her to revert to "poor strategies" (Clarke 1980: 206). Language proficiency offers one explanation for pupils' reading behavior and strategy use. However, it may not be the only explanation. What other reasons might have affected the behavior witnessed in this study? Why did pupils struggle to verbalize their thoughts, focus on decoding and use bottom-up strategies? Based on this study it is impossible to draw definitive conclusions but three explanatory factors can be put forward.

Firstly, participants may have lacked the necessary skills to verbalize their thought process. In other words, they did not have enough practice with the protocol method. As was discussed in the theory section, this is a widely recognized issue of think-aloud protocols (Brown & Rogers 2002). Reviewing the results, it seems likely that some pupils did not reveal the full scope of their reading behavior because they lacked the ability to verbalize their thoughts. Pupil B, for instance, explicitly stated that verbalizing what she was thinking was a difficult task. Although pupils practiced the technique prior to data collection, it seems that more training would have been needed to ensure full competence. More time allocated for training might have yielded richer introspection. In the future, how much time is provided for practicing the protocol method should be carefully considered when planning a verbal protocol study with young participants.

Secondly, pupils may have lacked the motivation or will to engage in the task. The data collection session was conducted during English class and consequently pupils were missing out on class activities. This might have affected pupils' concentration on the task. In addition, the first session lasted for 45 minutes and required active concentration for an

extended period of time. The mental strain of the task may have contributed to a lack of engagement. Issues of engagement should be considered in the planning of protocol studies by, for example, shortening the reading texts or collecting data in numerous consecutive sessions.

The third possible explanation is that pupils simply lacked a range of reparative strategies to draw upon. Many factors in this study give credence to such a conclusion. In the theory chapter I noted that the tradition of grammar translation is still present in contemporary Finnish reading comprehension exercises. Exercises often ask pupils to translate individual words or sentences to or from the target language. Comprehension questions commonly ask pupils to locate specific information from the passage. It follows that Finnish pupils learn to read the language in a certain way. They are trained to focus on decoding individual words rather than whole message systems (Swaffar 1985: 17). In other words, they are taught to read intensively rather than extensively. The fact that all the participants approached the protocol task with the same translation method indicates that it is learned and practiced behavior. In addition, providing participants the opportunity to concentrate solely on introspection in the second session did not increase the amount of introspection. Moreover, the bottom-up strategy use witnessed in the protocols was in line with pupils' self-reported strategy use. Furthermore, synthesizing and summarizing information seemed to be an unfamiliar task for pupils. This became evident when collecting the written recalls. All pupils expressed that they did not know what to write and two asked whether I wanted them to translate the whole text. All these factors suggest that pupils did not display range because they had not been taught to read strategically for meaning. Determining to what degree each of these factors influenced the results is beyond the scope of this study. Future studies with larger sample sizes could determine the degree to which Finnish learners' reading abilities and behavior is influenced by textbook reading practices.

5.3 Pupils' perceptions

It is an unfortunate reality that research–in the Finnish setting–has not focused on pupils' perspectives of their reading skills or the reading materials they engage with. Perhaps the most important result that surfaced from the interviews was that all pupils had self-confidence in their English reading skills. This is somewhat surprising, considering that two of the pupils (A and B) struggled to understand the authentic texts. We may recall here what

Allen et al. (1988) noted about the tendency to underestimate L2 readers' capacity for comprehension. The pupils in this study were tenacious and seemed to enjoy the passages despite the challenges they faced. When asked about their thoughts on reading authentic materials in and outside the classroom all pupils made positive remarks. Two of the pupils expressed that they would like to read more in English in their free time. All pupils thought it would be a good idea to read English children's literature in English class. The fact that pupils were willing to embrace the challenges of authentic materials is an important finding. Equally valuable are the comments pupils made on the non-authentic materials. Pupils did not mind the textbooks reading but did critique them for being boring, too easy, fake, and inauthentic. Reader perceptions show that as far as pupils are concerned, English children's literature could have a place in the Finnish language classroom. Literature could provide an engaging option to supplement some of the classroom reading.

5.4 Implications for classroom reading practices

Based on the results of this study, what can be said about young Finnish pupils' readiness to read authentic materials, and the place of English children's literature in the language classroom? Let us begin with readiness. Literary reading material needs to be carefully selected if learners are to engage with it (McKay 1982; Schulz 1981). The findings of this study confirm that language proficiency affects comprehension significantly. The chosen material needs to correspond to the readers' language proficiency level. In order to match readers with appropriate material, teachers need assessment tools. One useful tool is the *Lexile Framework*. This online tool enables teachers to match a learner's reading grade to a vast database of books in that grade. Equally important is the consideration of background knowledge. Literary works are often speckled with culturally specific modes of expression. Ensuring that readers have adequate background knowledge through various pre- and post-reading exercises will support comprehension and increase reading enjoyment.

Furthermore, learners need explicit strategy training to tackle the unique complexities of literary reading material. As was detailed in the theory chapter, explicit strategy training has been found to enhance L2 reading comprehension. Literature, with its structural complexities and rich vocabulary makes for fruitful strategy training ground, as readers are bound to encounter unfamiliar words and an array of new structures. Motivation and persistence are especially important in strategy training because training asks pupils to focus

on various features of the text and continuously monitor their comprehension. Providing engaging reading material is crucial to maintain motivation and persistence. In addition to providing rich training ground, literature can be highly motivation. Ghosn (2002: 173) points out that children are naturally drawn to stories which makes literature motivating and meaningful. Collie and Slater (1990) also note that personal engagement with the developing story helps to focus on features other than the mechanic linguistic ones and to keep readers motivated over extended periods of time. By choosing level-appropriate material, providing needed background information, and demonstrating strategies in action, language teachers can facilitate conditions for learners to thrive with authentic material. Readiness, then, is largely dependent on the conditions provided by the teacher.

There is a dazzling array of online resources, journals and printed handbooks available for teachers considering the use of authentic materials. To mention a few, the British Council's language learning site (http://learnenglishkids.britishcouncil.org) provides free class units and exercise booklets centered around short stories. *Carol Hurst's Children's Literature Site* (www.carolhurst.com) offers literature-based class units, book reviews and suggestions for how to use them in classrooms. The *International Children's Literature Library* (http://en.childrenslibrary.org) houses a vast collection of scanned children's books from around the world. *The Children's Literature Network* (www.childrensliteraturenetwork.org) contains a plethora of information for literary-minded educators such as booklists and reviews of contemporary children's literature. *Children's literature in English Language Education* (www.clelejournal.org) is an academic journal with a specific focus on studies related to literature use in English L2 and FL education. Finally, *Literature in the Language Classroom* (1991) is a practical handbook of activities and ideas for incorporating literature in language education.

I now turn to the second questions: what place could literature have in the Finnish language classroom? As things presently stand in Finland, reading in mainly a vehicle for presenting new linguistic input. This function inevitably directs learners to concentrate on isolated facts and approach texts with bottom-up comprehension strategies. Pupils are taught to be skilled decoders but are they learning to be skilled, resourceful readers, as the FNCC instructs? Are they being taught to view texts comprehensively; to distinguish main points, to relate new information to existing knowledge, to monitor comprehension and pick up on textual cues? The results of this study suggest that this may not be the case. The purpose of language

education is to prepare learners for the world outside the classroom. The majority of texts learners will encounter throughout life will be authentic. If the function of reading is simply to decode, how are learners to handle and enjoy the plethora of authentic input they will come across? Without appropriate reading skills, we cannot expect Finnish learners to be enthusiastic or competent when it comes to increasingly demanding authentic texts in higher education and life thereafter. Swaffar (1985: 30) asserts that "the foreign language teacher's instructional task is to guide students in identifying the components of information systems presented in authentic language, not to define every word or explain every implication". In other words, language teachers may need to reconsider the functions of reading within the context of language education. Introducing literary reading to Finnish language classrooms might serve as a catalysis for reconsidering what the function of reading should be. Literary reading could expand functions because it offers opportunities for 'extensive reading', strategy training and the development critical thinking skills.

5.5 Limitations and further research

Using Carrell's (1989a: 121) vernacular, this study can be defined as an "exploratory, descriptive investigation" of Finnish L2 readers. This study was conducted with a small sample size of four participants. As such, results are not generalizable for large populations of interest. Rather, the results should be viewed as suggestive of possible trends in how Finnish learners read English materials. More extensive research with larger samples would be needed to draw definitive conclusion about young Finnish pupils' reading comprehension and strategy use.

The verbal protocol method I chose set certain limitations on the quality and scope of data gathered. The reliability issues of verbal protocols need to be addressed. Brown and Rodgers (2002: 73) present three key reliability issues: participants' ability to access mental processes, the guiding effect of instructions on the content of the report, and the effect of reporting activity on the actual mental processes. As has been previously stated, despite taking procedural precautions, the pupils in this study did not produce as much verbalization of their mental processing as was expected. It seems that this was because participants concentrated more on translating than introspecting. It is likely that some mental processing remained veiled. Hence, the descriptions of reading comprehension and strategy use presented here may not account for the whole scope of what pupils are capable of. Despite

its' short-comings, when conducted with care verbal protocols "provide the most reliable evidence as to what goes on in the brain when we undertake certain mental task" (Brown & Rodgers 2002: 73). The data collection in this thesis was conducted with care. Best practices were followed and additional data was gathered to eliminate the possible effects of collection procedures. Yet, the data collected in this study could have been enriched in two ways. Practicing the protocol method more extensively before data collection may have leveled out individual differences in introspection skills. Additionally, giving participants one clear introspection task may have enabled participants to focus attention.

Finally, the strategy checklist used in this study limited the scope of inspection. In the first place, some of the items in the strategy list left room for interpretation and were difficult to detect in action. For instance, it was not always clear whether a participant skipped a word because he or she did not understand it or because it was deemed unnecessary for total phrase meaning. On many occasions, uncertainty could be eliminated by examining how well the participant had understood the words surrounding the skipped item. However, it is possible that some instances of strategy use were categorized incorrectly. Furthermore, participants' reading behavior was coded according to the strategies in the checklist. Using another checklist, with slightly different strategies or wording of strategies, would provide a different perspective on strategy use. As was mentioned in section 2.1.3, strategy lists typically make rough divides between top-down and bottom-up strategies. Based on participants' behavior and self-reported strategy use, it seems likely that results would not have altered significantly even if a different strategy checklist was employed.

Despite the limitations of this study, I was successful in gathering preliminary data on young Finnish as readers of English. Because young Finnish pupils' literary reading skills have not been extensively studied, much remains to be uncovered. One of the most interesting findings of this study is the possible link between textbook reading practices and reading skills. Further research would be needed to determine to what extent language classroom reading practices and materials affect how Finnish pupils approach other reading materials. Such an inquiry would need to be conducted on a large sample of young pupils from versatile backgrounds. Such a study could be extremely valuable with respect to future curriculum development because it may unearth some of the negative consequences of textbook reading practices on Finnish pupils' overall reading skills. In a similar vein, future research could examine how literary reading affects language learning and reading skills. Such an inquiry

would need to be experimental and longitudinal in nature. Another area left unexplored in this study was the significance of background knowledge on reading comprehension. Future studies could examine the effects of background knowledge both on reading comprehension and reading enjoyment. Yet another direction would be to focus on the teachers. Some pivotal questions include: what do teachers think of English children's literature? What are the functions of reading from the teachers' perspectives? And what guides teachers' material choices? In order to further explore the possibilities of literature in the Finnish language classroom, it is vital to understand where teachers stand on the matter. It is clear that reading offers various points of interesting inquiry within the Finnish context. I now turn to the concluding remarks of this thesis.

6 Conclusion

This thesis sought to examine what place English children's literature could have in the Finnish language classroom and how well-equipped Finnish pupils are to read it. This was done by comparing pupils' reading comprehension, reading strategies and perceptions of textbook reading materials and children's literature. In light of the findings, it appears that language proficiency sets certain restrictions on reading authentic materials. In this study, pupils with higher proficiency understood both types of texts better than those with limited vocabulary and structural knowledge. Because weaker readers needed to rely more regularly on reparative bottom-up strategies, they struggled to form a cohesive and accurate understanding of the literary material.

Being able to monitor comprehension and draw on a versatile range of comprehension strategies to repair comprehension breakdown are markers of a skilled reader. In this thesis, none of the pupils displayed a wide range of strategy use or reported knowledge of numerous reparative strategies. The lack of top-down strategies was strikingly visible. Moreover, all pupils performed similarly to each other. One explanatory factor I brought forward was that the textbook reading practices pupils are accustomed to may be responsible for the small repertoire of strategies. In previous studies, graded textbooks have been criticized for inhibiting the development of top-down approaches to meaning making. Young Finnish pupils would benefit from explicit strategy training if they are to handle literary texts competently.

At the same time, all pupils were able to understand both texts to some degree. They were resilient readers and endeavored to make sense of difficult sentences to the best of their abilities. Moreover, all participants enjoyed reading, had a confident view of themselves as English readers, and a positive disposition toward English language children's books. As advocates of children's literature often point out, children are natural drawn to stories making them potentially highly motivating and engaging. It appears that Finnish pupils are happy to welcome the change and embrace the challenges afforded by literary reading material. Perhaps it's time for Finnish educators to reassess their reading practices and consider the potential benefits of integrating literary reading into the language classroom.

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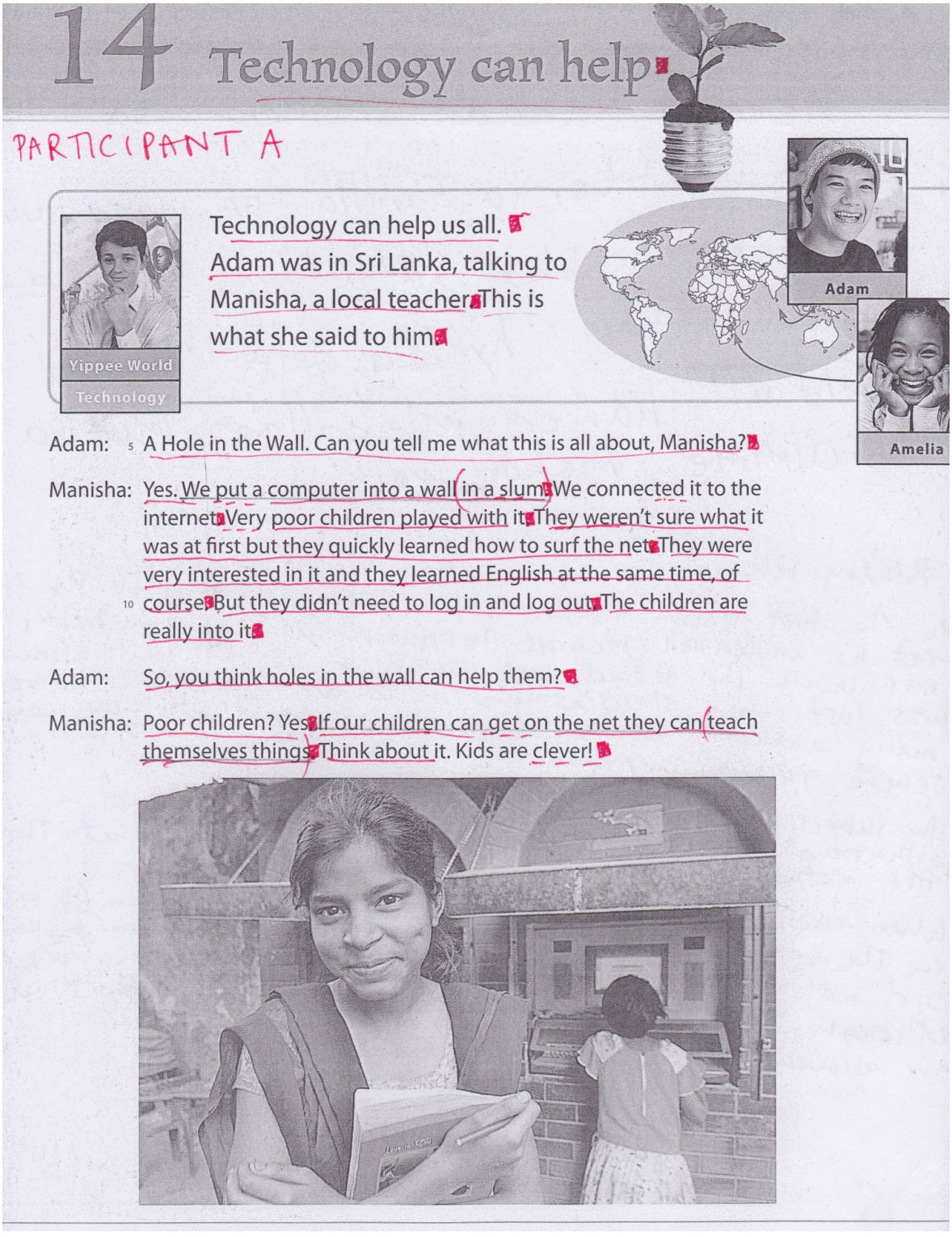
Appendices

Appendix 1: Non-authentic text 1



14 Technology can help

PARTICIPANT A

Yippee World
Technology

Technology can help us all. Adam was in Sri Lanka, talking to Manisha, a local teacher. This is what she said to him.

Adam

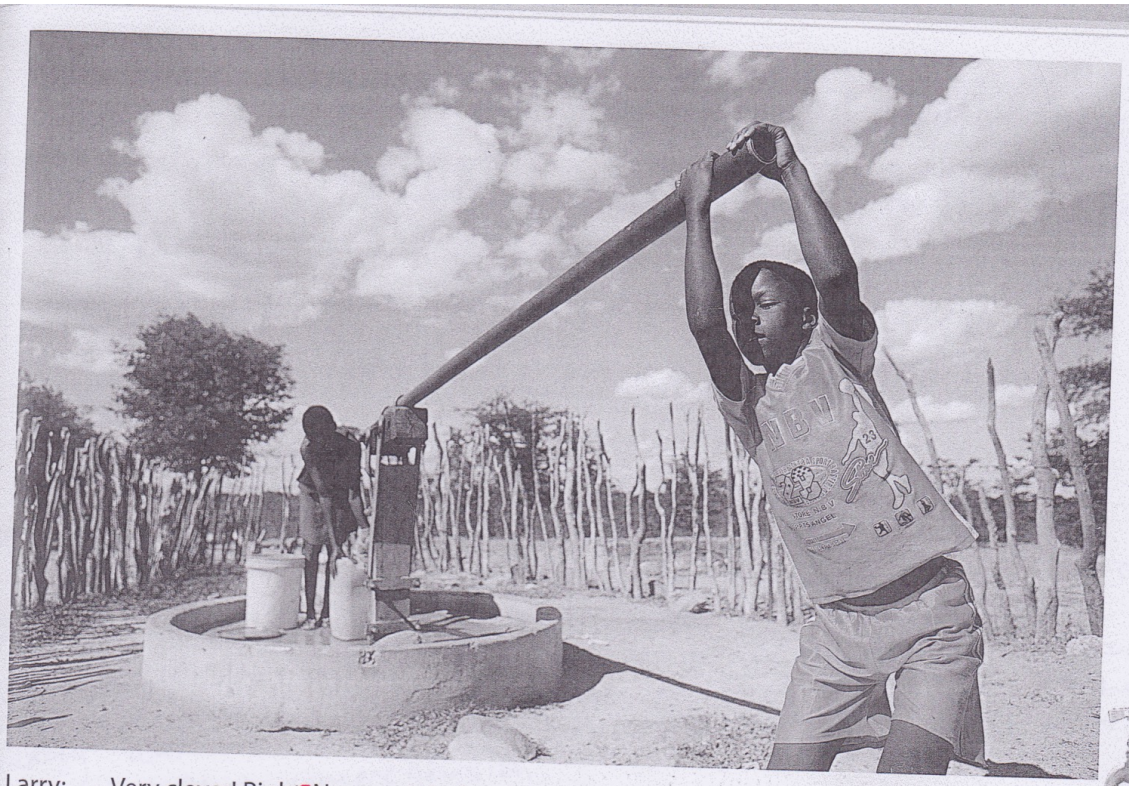
Amelia

Adam: A Hole in the Wall. Can you tell me what this is all about, Manisha?

Manisha: Yes. We put a computer into a wall in a slum. We connected it to the internet. Very poor children played with it. They weren't sure what it was at first but they quickly learned how to surf the net. They were very interested in it and they learned English at the same time, of course. But they didn't need to log in and log out. The children are really into it.

Adam: So, you think holes in the wall can help them?

Manisha: Poor children? Yes. If our children can get on the net they can teach themselves things. Think about it. Kids are clever!

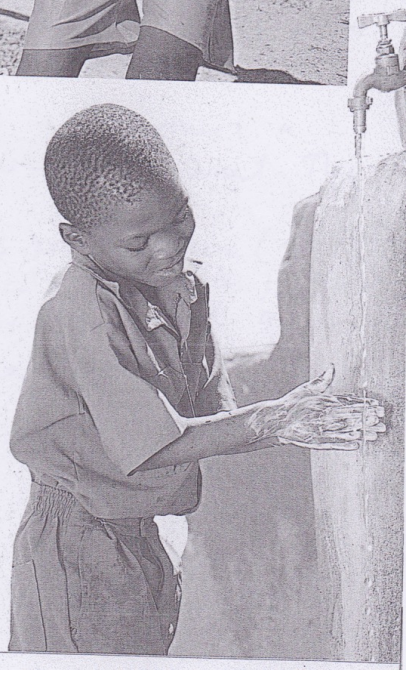


Larry: Very clever! Right. Now we join Amelia in Zimbabwe. She's also talking to a local teacher, called Gamba. Let's listen to what he has to tell her.

Amelia: I'm here with UNICEF. Many people in Zimbabwe can't get water easily. And sometimes their water can also be unclean. UNICEF is giving them pumps and showing them how to make water cleaner. Do you think the UNICEF engineers can help your country, Gamba?

Gamba: My village is very happy to have them here. Before they came, we got our water from a well two miles away. Now we have our own well. And the water is very clean. So they really helped us a lot. Technology saved our lives.

Larry: Just two examples of how technology can help us all. Stay tuned to Yippee World!



Appendix 2: Non-authentic text 2

13 The global music awards

Yippee World Music

Yippee World proudly presents to you the Global Music Awards – live from Ireland this evening. John is waiting for us patiently backstage at the moment. So, let's join him immediately in the Ambassador Cinema in Dublin.

John

John: Good evening and welcome to Dublin, the capital of Ireland! The singers and musicians are standing around nervously backstage. The concert orchestra is slowly warming up. The audience and special guests are chatting quietly in this lovely, old cinema. We are all looking forward to an exciting evening here tonight. The lights are gradually going out all over the theatre. The audience is clapping and cheering loudly. The orchestra starts…

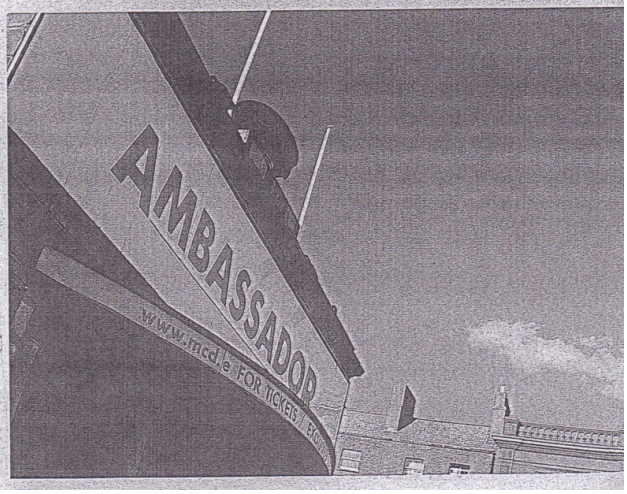
Colin: Hello and welcome to the Global Music Awards here in Dublin tonight!

Fiona: Millions of people are watching us live all over the world, on the net and on TV, in over 100 countries!

Colin: Tonight, we're proudly giving awards to the best musical artists in the world!

Fiona: In rock music, world music!

Colin: Classical and pop!



Appendix 3: Authentic text 1

I

"You who are about to die salute me!"

"You have got to be kidding," said Sam.

The big guy who had spoken waved a net and a long-handled pitchfork in front of Fred, Sam, and me.

"He sure doesn't look like he's kidding," said Fred.

The fork-waving guy crouched in front of us. He wore a loincloth and sandals and a mean look on his face.

"I swear I put *The Book* away in a safe spot so we wouldn't get time traveled into any more trouble," I said. "Maybe he isn't a real gladiator, and maybe this isn't really Rome two thousand years ago."

"Yeah," said Sam. "And maybe I'm Santa Claus and maybe this is the North Pole."

I looked around for a way out. We stood in the

middle of a little outdoor arena about the size of a small backyard. A tall wooden wall circled all around us. Our sneakers sank into deep sand. There was no way to escape.

"Now fight," said the gladiator, getting impatient.

"I cannot believe I let myself get dragged into this time-travel-try-to-find-that-disappearing-*Book* thing again," said Sam.

"Ah, what's the big deal?" said Fred. "It's just a

little accident. This could be a great chance to see some real wrestling."

"Just a little accident?" squeaked Sam, his voice rising like it does when he gets excited. "Then why don't you explain the little accident to our friend with the trident."

"With the what?" said Fred.

"With that big fork he's getting ready to poke us with," said Sam.

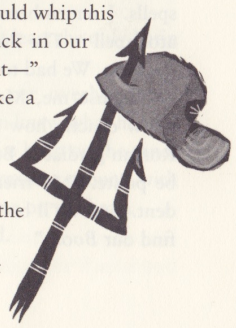
"Oh yeah. I knew that," said Fred.

Sam pushed Fred forward. Fred looked up at the gladiator. He looked back at Sam. "I got it under control." Fred took off his World Wrestling hat and bowed. "Greetings, gladiator guy. We have come from far away to see some real wrestling. See I was telling Sam that even I could whip this one guy named Gladiator back in our time, but I wasn't talking about—"

The gladiator twitched like a rattlesnake.

One second Fred was holding out his hat. The next second his hat was speared on the end of the trident.

"—about you . . . I wasn't



Appendix 4: Authentic text 2

III

The gladiator stood over us and raised his trident overhead. He jabbed down at Fred, Sam, and me helplessly tangled in the net. The trident was heading right for us when . . . when Sam thrashed around with his sword again . . . and miraculously knocked the trident aside. It stuck harmlessly into the sand.

The gladiator grunted in surprise and tried to stab us again. Fred swung his wooden sword and knocked the trident aside. The gladiator stabbed again. I knocked it aside.

"Hold still," yelled the frustrated gladiator. "Die like true gladiators."

"We'd really rather not die at all," I said.

"We use ancient fighting arts," said Sam.

"Yeah, give us your best shot, Gladiweenie," said Fred.

Fred's last crack was, as usual, just a little bit more than really needed to be said.

The gladiator, completely furious now, grabbed the trident with two hands. Before any of us could even hope to knock it away, the trident plunged.

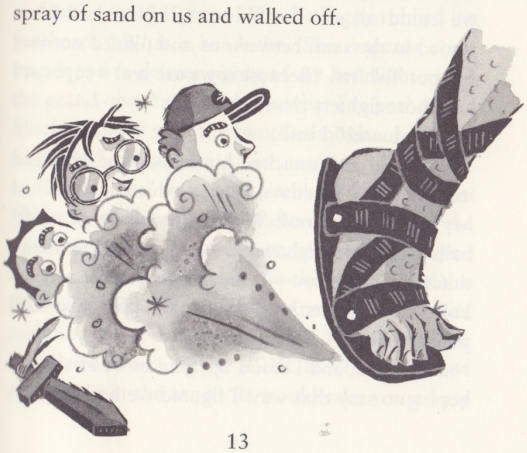
"Arrrrrr!" moaned Sam.

"I'm paralyzed!" I said.

"Everything's going dark!" said Fred.

"Brutus," called a voice. "The glory is yours. That's a win."

Brutus, our gladiator pal, kicked a not-accidental spray of sand on us and walked off.



Appendix 5: Reading strategy checklist (Hosenfelt et al. 1981)

Strategies	Participant A	Participant B	Participant C	Participant D
Keeps meaning in mind				
Skips unknown words				
Uses context in preceding/succeeding sentences and paragraphs				
Identifies grammatical category of words				
Evaluates guesses				
Reads title (makes inferences)				
Continues if unsuccessful				
Recognizes cognates				
Uses knowledge of the world				
Analyzes unknown words				
Reads as though expecting the text to make sense				
Reads to identify meaning rather than words				
Takes chances in order to identify meaning				
Uses illustration				
Uses dictionary as a last resort				
Looks up words correctly				
Skips unnecessary words				

Follows through with proposed solutions				
Uses a variety of types of context clues				

General reading behavior	Participant A	Participant B	Participant C	Participant D
Rarely translates; guesses contextually				
Translates; guesses noncontextually				
Translates; guesses contextually				
Translates; rarely guesses				

Appendix 6: Interview questions

1. Voisitko kertoa minulle lukutottumuksistasi? Eli missä ja mitä luet eniten?
2. Kuinka paljon aikaa käytät keskimäärin viikoittain lukemiseen?
3. Mitä mieltä olet lukemisesta?
4. Voitko arvioida kuinka paljon viikossa luet vapaa-ajalla?
5. Mitä mieltä olet omasta lukutaidostasi suomeksi? Entä englanniksi? Arvioi omaa tasoa koulun arvosana-asteikolla 4-10.
6. Mitkä taidot tekevät jostain hyvän lukijan?
7. Kun luet englanniksi, mitä ja missä yleensä luet?
8. Oletko lukenut/luetko lasten kirjoja englanniksi? Kerro niistä.
9. Mitä mieltä olet englannin kielisistä lasten kirjoista?
10. Mitä mieltä olet englannin tekstikirjan lukuteksteistä?
11. Mikä olisi kaikkein mieluisinta englannin kielistä lukemista sinulle?
12. Oliko jompikumpi teksteistä helpompi ymmärtää? Miksi?
13. Mitä mieltä olisit siitä, jos englannin tunneilla luettaisiin lasten kirjoja?

Appendix 7: Original transcriptions in Finnish

(1) No se kerto sellai, sellai et jos on köyhiä siin Intia kohassa nii et, tai ei vaan Sri Lanka kohassa että siel oli sellai ööö no et siel pääsee opettelee niinku tietokoneen käyttöö ne lapset ja ku ei niil oo varaa muuten sellasii. Ja sit tos oli siin Zimbabwe että ne sais vettä lähempää ja vesi olis puhtaampaa.

(2) Eli tässä tekstissä oli kyse teknologiasta ja kuinka nykymaailmassa teknologia voi auttaa erittäin montaa ihmistä…siinä toisessa tekstissä puhuttiin siitä kuinka tällä vesipumpuilla pelastettiin niinku tän kylän niinku lasten ja aikuisten vedensaantia […]
I: Okei, mikä siinä ensimmäisessä tarinassa, mikä se oli se keksintö minkä ne oli keksiny? Se reikä seinässä juttu.
Ai nii joo, se oli niinku semmonen tietokone-tyyppinen et siel oli niinku semmosii tietokoneita minne semmoset pienet lapset pysty menee pelaa tai niille pystyttiin opettamaan niinku tätä teknologiaa.

(3) No miten niinku teknologiaa voitiin hyödyntää eri paikoissa maailmaa.
I: Ja mitä ne oli ne tavat?
P: No, se eka oli ilahduttaa lapsia ja toinen oli helpottaa ihmisten elämiä.

(4) Siitä kuinka teknologia auttaa maailmaa.
I: Ja mitä ne esimerkit oli?
No se että siellä, oiskohan se ollu, olikohan se Sri Lankassa nii sil oli sillai et ne lapset sai käyttää tietokonetta ja sitte ne oppi sieltä uusii asioita. Ja sitte siellä Zimbabwessa ni sitte ne sai sen pumpun sinne ja sitten ne sai sielt puhdasta vettä.

(5) Jotkut pojat onnistu jotenki aikamatkaamaan jonneki ja sitte ne joutu gladiaattoriareenalle.

(6) Siitä kun jotkut tyypit menee aikamatkustamalla Roomaan ja sit ne joutuu taistelee jotain gladiaattoria vastaan.

(7) Se oli sellai se yks tyyppi oli sellai jotenki uhkaili jollai haarukoilla. Ja sit ne ajatteli et toi vois olla niinku Rooma öö tota sillon ku oli ne gladiaattorit. Ja sit se yks ajatteli et se vois olla joulupukki ja sellai.
I: Joo. Olikse tota, mmm.. oliks ne sun mielestä oikeesti Roomassa vai ajatteliks ne vaan et ne oli siellä.
Ajatteli.
I: Okei. Missä ne oikeesti oli?
Olikohan ne jossain ehk […] se oli […]ne oli siellä jossai pihalla tai siellä jossain siellä pihapaikassa tai jossain.

(8) No sikäli kun mä ymmärsin niin ne oli semmosella [...] toi kerto semmosesta niinku […] ööh […] no siin oli ainakin tyyppejä jotka oli sellasella gladiaattoriareenalle ja ne oli niinku vanhassa Roomassa. Ääm ja sit se niinku, olikohan, siinä puhuttiin kirjasta et oisko tää myös jossakin määrin liittyny johonkin kirjaan ja sitten tota tää niinku, mun mielestä tää kerto niinku vanhasta Roomasta ja siitä kuinka nää niinku, siin tais olla ainakin ton

kuvan perusteella perus jotain poikia, jotka niinku halus gladiaattoreiksi ja joo.

(9) A: sinä (0.2) kuka [...] olet (0.3) die […] salute ** emmä tiiä.
B: Eli (0.2) ** sinä kuka olet **[...]** kuolla [...]meitä vastaan tai meissä.
C: **sinä joka olet kuolemassa niin (0.2) **salute me […] mä en nyt tätä vaan muista. Meeks mä vaa eteenpäin? I: Kerro mulle, jos sä et muista sanaa, et mitä sä luulet et se tarkottaa. C: No, ylistä minua.
D: Sinä joka olet […] aikeissa kuolla (0.3) tee jotain minulle.

(10) ** miksi et […] selitä tätä pientä onnettomuutta […] tuolle kaverillesi. Siis mitä sanoi Fred.

(11) No miksi sitten et selitä tätä pientä […] vahinkoa meidän ystävällemme (0.2) odota ...to our friend with the trident […] niinku meidän ystävällemme. Minkä […] tai niinku […] minkä takia.

(12) Mikset sitten selitä meidän tapaturmaamme ** meidän kaverillemme tridentin kanssa. Minkä kanssa sanoi Fred.

(13) ** (0.3) ** sitten miksi et selitä pikku onnettomuutta ** kaverillemme jolla on […] iso haarukka-juttu. Siis minkä kanssa, sanoi Fred.

(14) A: **iso (0.2) mies joka on puhun—** (spoken) puhunut netissä.
B: ** tämä iso (0.2) tyyppi joka oli puhunut ** niinkun paljon netissä.
C: Se tai iso tyyppi ** joka puhui (0.2) heilutti (0.2) **verkkoa.
D: **Se iso kaveri joka (0.2) puhui ** (0.8) ** teki jotain.

(15) ** (0.3) nyt meillä on oma (0.5) mikä on well (0.3) emmä tiiä.

(16) Se haarukkaa heiluttava ** tyyppi (0.3) jotain in fron- meidän edessämme.

(17) Joten olet sitä mieltä että nämä ** reiät seinässä tai miten se nyt sanotaankaan voi oikeasti auttaa näitä pieniä lapsia.

(18) Moni ihminen Zimbabwessa ei valitettavasti voi saada vettä niin helposti kuin muut ihmiset. Ja aika usein tää vesi voi olla myös niinku epäpuhdasta ja siin voi olla paljon tällasii tarttuvia tauteja.

(19) Nähdään myöhemmin gladiaattori ja gladiaattori oli tollasii vanhoja, olikohan ne nyt roomalaisia, sellasia härkätaistelijoitako ne oli? Ei oo historian kirjasta nyt sen verran enempää jääny mieleen.

(20) No siis se on toi (osoittaa kirjan kuvassa olevaa atrainta). Mikä se on suomeks? Se on semmonen millä en jotkut maa[…] mul on aina sillai et joskus mä tiedän mitä se sana tarkottaa mut sit mä en osaa selittää sitä suomeks.

(21) Tänään olemme Dublinissa Irlannin pääkaupungissa jakamassa palkintoja maailman parhaille musiikkiartisteille. Olemme kaupungin vanhassa ja upeassa teatterissa. Teatterissa mukanamme on myös upea orkesteri. Jaamme palkintoja maailman parhaille pop, rock, ja classic-musiikin artisteille.

(22) Yippee World kuvasi livenä maailman musiikki palkintogaalasta. Se järjestettiin musiikkitalolla Dublinissa, Irlannissa. Siellä jaettiin mm. rock-musiikki ja klassikko musiikki palkinnot.

(23) Gladiaattori löi atraimensa maahan yrittäessään osua (äx) ään. Sitten (äx) otti miekan ja huitoi kuin mikäkin maanviljelijä ja löi taakse gladiaattorin iskuja toistuvasti. Hermostunut gladiaattori huusi ”kuolkaa jo kuin kunnon gladiaattorit!!” (Äx)ä vastasi ”emme tod. Kuole!”
”Käytämme muinaisia itsepuolustustekniikkoja!!”

(24) Olemme tänään moikkaamassa gladiaattoria. Samilla on mukanaan puinen miekka siltä varalta, että gladiaattori hyökkää. Gladiaattori uhkaili hänen miekallaan, mutta saimme miekan pois.

(25) Gladiaattoreilla oli meneillään harjoitukset. Heidän johtaja arvioi heitä ja sen vuoksi vielä lopuksi huusi:
-Kuolen kuin oikea gladiaattori!

(26) No mä luen kotona yleensä omassa huonees ja mä luen ihan niinku tavallisia sellaisi kirjoja jotka on esimerkiksi Kunnarin kirjoja. Ja sitten jotain ihan muitaki ihan tavallisia kirjoja… On se ihan kivaa sellai kun jos vaik äiti sanoo et pitää lukee nii ei se oo tylsää lukee sillon. Kyl mä sellai, kyl mä luen muutenki mut.. se on ihan ok kiva lukee.

(27) No siis mä tykkään tosi paljon lukemisesta. Mä tykkään fantasiatarinoista ja semmosesta vähän jännityksestä ja ehkä välillä ihan perus niinku päiväkirja-tyyppisestä, vähän kevyemmästäki lukemisesta.

(28) Joskus se on ihan sairaan tylsää ja ei oo motivaatioo mutta joskus se on tosi kivaa. Jos on joku hyvä kirja tai jos on oikee, niinku, tai siis jos lukee oikeeseen aikaan. No jos mä oon tekemässä jotain ja sit mun pitäis lukee nii sit mä en ainakaa suostu lukee. Jos mä oon tosi väsyny tai jos mä oon muuten vaan..öö..en oo oikeessa tilassa.

(29) …ja mul saattaa olla vaik viis kirjaa kesken, niinku yöpöydällä, et mä luen aika paljon. Mä tykkään lukea sci-fi kirjoja ja jotain draamakirjoja.

(30) Mä etin kirjaa nii sitten meil ei ollu mitää sellasta kirjaa jota mä halusin lukee sillon Nii sitte mä löysin sen mun hyllyltä ja sit mä luin sen. Se oli sellai, se oli ehkä englantilaisialle lapsille. Se oli sellai vähä vaikeet tekstii välillä. Kyl mä ymmärsin sen.

(31) Me oltiin Amerikassa ja sit me mentiin kirjakauppaan ja sit mun äitin piti hallita mua, kun mä oisin halunnu ne kaikki kirjat. Ja sit mun äidin piti hallita

mua. No me ostettiin sit mulle sellanen kirja kun Summer of Lost and Found ja mä luin sitä sivulle yks ja mä en ymmärtäny siit yhtään mitään. Nyt kun mä yritin uudestaan ihan pari viikko sitten nii mä aloin ymmärtää paljon enemmän. Et täs vuodessa se on ollu mul kirjahyllyssä ja mä oon sitä mieltä et se niinku, se on oikeesti haastavampi et jos mä haluun haastetta englannin läksyjen jälkeen nii kyl mä rupeen sit lukee sitä. Vaik se on tarkotettu mun ikäsille amerikkalaisille nuorille.

(32) Joo, mä oon lukenu yhen seikkailukirjan. Se oli aika helppo. Paitsi ehkä oli jotain pienii juttui mitä mä en ihan silleen tarpeeks tarkasti tajunnu tai jotain.. Mut ei..ei se kauheesti haitannu.

(33) Emmä kyl kirjoja oikeen lue enkuks. No mun mielestä, kun mä oon lukenu jotain suomeks nii ois hauska lukee niit englanniks, esim niinku jotain Harry Potteria, koska mä haluisin nähä et onks ne samanlaisia.

(34) Minkä takia sä annat englannista vähän huonomman?
Koska no emmä tiiä, kyl mä nyt enemmän suomeks ymmärrän ku enkuks.

(35) Et se sille on opetettu rikas kielivarasto et se ymmärtää siitä jotain. Se auttaa et pystyy oman pään sisällä kääntää ne sanat suomeks. Jos haluu olla tosi hyvä englannin lukija nii kannattaa osata niitä perussanoja. Sit kun sitä tekstiä ymmärtää ei edes huomaa et lukee. Kaikki kääntyy vaan automaattisesti päässä suomeks. Sit sä voit lukee sitä tekstiä huoletta. Se on tosi hyvä tunne.

(36) Ne kappaleet on, jotkut on onneksi vähän haastavampia mut jotkut on sit ihan kamalan helppoja et sit niit ei tekis mieli yhtään lukea.

(37) No jotkut on vaan jotenkin vähän ärsyttäviä kun ne on jotenkin yrittäny olla jotain ja sit ne on feikkejä. Mut siis jotkut on ihan kivoja ja kiinnostavii. Joo, nää on vähän vanhoja.

(38) Ne on ihan sillai kivoja, mut sitten joskus me luetaan niit niin paljon et sit niihin puutuu.

(39) Kyl se ois hyvä idea, koska se auttais lasten englanninkielintaitoa. Sekä suullista et mielentilallisesti. Meil alko aika myöhään et vasta kolmosella alko enkku mut mun mielestä ois hyvä saada enkkuu läpi elämän jotenkin, koska englanti on se mitä sä isona käytät, niinku joka, niinku töissä sä tarvitset englantia ihan sama minne töihin sä meet, sä tarvitset sitä kieltä. Nii sitä ois aika tärkee osata ja lastenkirjoista sitä saa ja jos oikeesti panostaa ja keskittyy niihin englannin lukuläksyihin. Nii mä on kyl sitä mieltä et se ois erittäin hyvä idea jos sitä alettais enemmän aktiivisemmin lukemaan tunnilla.

(40) No mä ainakin tykkään tommosista et niit vois lukee tunnilla ja emmä tiiä se on vaan kivaa lukee tunnilla yhessä englanniks kirjoja.

(41) No, ois se ihan sillai..noist vois tehä tyyliin sillai et pitäis lukee tommonen läksynä ja sit siit vois tehä esitelmän.